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ABSTRACT

The first section of this book presents a discussion of the criteria to be used in developing and evaluating inservice teacher education programs. The criteria are decision-making, relationship to the program of the school, resources, commitment to teacher education, and rewards. Section Two contains descriptions of nine inservice programs. (JD)

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INSERVICE EDUCATION: CRITERIA FOR AND EXAMPLES OF LOCAL PROGRAMS

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INSERVICE EDUCATION
CRITERIA FOR AND EXAMPLES OF LOCAL PROGRAMS

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MAR 1 9 1980

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Foreword

A 1974 amendment to Title V of the Higher Education Act authorized Teacher Corps to support demonstration projects for retraining experienced teachers and teacher aides serving in local education agencies. This amendment has created a new excitement among Teacher Corps projects. It has also created concern among a broad-based audience with regard to the what, why, and how of retraining and inservice education.

The pertinent issues generated by the retraining amendment have motivated Teacher Corps projects, particularly those in the Far West, to explore the whole area of inservice education. The Far West Teacher Corps Network has studied such issues as: (a) the purposes of inservice education, (b) collaboration and governance among the participants in an inservice education program, (c) alternative training strategies in urban and rural areas that very often include a wide variety of ethnic groups, (d) incentives or rewards for inservice education participation, and (e) the integration of preservice and inservice education. This list is by no means comprehensive.

The exploration has led to new ideas, recommendations, and strategies that have proved useful to Teacher Corps projects as well as to non-Teacher-Corps projects that are trying to develop and implement effective inservice education programs. This publication presents criteria for designing local programs and descriptions of selected inservice programs. The criteria and descriptions are not merely academic, but represent operational projects, two of which are in the Far West Teacher Corps Network.

The Board of Directors of the Far West Teacher Corps Network, Paul Walker, who is Executive Secretary of the Network, and Roy Edelfelt are to be commended for their efforts to deal forthrightly with all aspects of an inservice education program. In addition, special acknowledgment is accorded to William L. Smith, Director of Teacher Corps.

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Washington, D. C.
February 1977

Preface

This book is an extension of the booklet, *Inservice Education: Criteria for Local Programs,* published by the Far West Teacher Corps Network in September 1976. Here, the criteria for developing local inservice education programs are presented again and illustrated in nine inservice programs. The primary focus of this publication is to demonstrate the relationship of the criteria to operational programs.

This publication issues from activities and events that occurred over a two-year span. An initial set of criteria for local inservice education programs was generated at the Teacher-Corps-sponsored Workshop on Reconceptualizing Inservice Education in Atlanta, Georgia, in February 1975, and was published in *Rethinking In-Service Education.* The Far West Teacher Corps Network perceived that such criteria could be useful not just to personnel in Far West Teacher Corps projects, but also to many other educators. First the Network mailed the criteria to educators across the nation, in all interested and affected camps, asking for critical comments. Then the Network sought critical comments on a revised set of criteria from participants in a Teacher-Corps-sponsored workshop in Las Vegas, Nevada, in June 1976. At the same workshop, participants learned about and discussed nine inservice programs that exemplified some of the criteria—the nine programs that are described in this book. Following the workshop the criteria were revised once again and also elaborated on, for publication alone in the earlier booklet and with examples in the present book.

The Far West Teacher Corps Network is grateful to Roy Edelfelt for his significant contributions to and leadership in the activities and events that led to this volume, and to Teacher Corps, Washington, D. C., for encouraging developmental inservice efforts.

PAUL (RANDY) WALKER
Executive Secretary
Far West Teacher Corps Network

Bellingham, Washington
February 1977

Part One

Criteria for Local Inservice Education Programs

Chapter One

The Shifting Emphasis to Inservice Teacher Education

Roy A. Edelfelt *

Considerable attention is being given by various agencies to inservice education. Some agencies are trying to build a preservice-inservice continuum. Guidelines for preservice programs are longstanding, but designing inservice programs that are more than courses and workshops is intricate and baffling. There are few precedents, and there are no existing frameworks at the state level to offer guidance and legitimacy in concept, organization, design, and support (Edelfelt & Johnson, 1975).

The nature and scope of the problems to be faced, the implications of such problems for program development, and guidelines for local inservice program development are almost wholly unknown or lacking. What follows is a first attempt to deal with the above three issues: problems, implications, and guidelines.

In this chapter, "inservice education" is conceived as the professional development of teachers and other educational personnel. It is recommended that the approach to developing and maintaining effective inservice programs be through a consortium of teacher organizations, local and intermediate school districts, and colleges/universities; and that such professional development focus on identified and specific curriculum and instructional needs of local teachers, classrooms, schools, and districts in order to advance the quality of learning for students.

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* This chapter is based on a paper developed with the assistance of Fred Andelman, Massachusetts Teachers Association; Patrick Dolan, Michigan Education Association; Herbert Hite, Western Washington State College; Stanley Jeffers, Washington Education Association; and E. Brooks Smith, Wayne State University. The paper included 23 criteria for designing and evaluating local inservice education programs. The 23 criteria have since been modified into the 29 criteria that are presented and discussed in Chapter 2.

A Basic Assumption

The fundamental purpose of inservice education is the improvement of educational programs for students. Inservice programs for the professional development of educational personnel should therefore be designed, in the final analysis, to have an impact on the quality of school programs for students.

What Are the Problems?

When college/university programs move from emphasizing preservice training to considering inservice needs, and from mainly on-campus courses to field-based activities involving both neophytes and experienced teachers, there are several new factors that designers of such programs need to consider.

The main setting of the program shifts from the college/university campus to the school community itself, where a school curriculum and program of instruction are already operative. Curriculum and instruction are under the jurisdiction of the local school board, controlled by the superintendent and his or her staff, and made operational by school faculties in groups and as individuals. The entire staff, with the superintendent, are responsible to the local and state communities for meeting educational goals that are or have been articulated publicly in both explicit and implied ways.

In this setting there are often local curriculum councils with some responsibility for school program. There are established curriculum guides, authorized texts, and other materials. There may be structured liaisons with supervisory staff of the local or intermediate district. Some districts or groups of teachers may have established curriculum development and instructional improvement programs or teacher centers with formal or informal designs. All of these activities will be taking place in a particular school subculture created by the society of teachers, students, administrators, service staff, and parents. Teachers, students, and parents will be creating unique subcultures within the school each year. Each teacher (or team of teachers) will develop the curriculum and instruction for a group of learners in his or her own way and will be nearly the final educational authority in that situation.

At the same time, numerous laws and administrative rules have been and continue to be promulgated that relate directly to school programs and inservice education. In many cases these laws and rules impose specific curriculum and program requirements on teachers and schools. Special education, career education, vocational education, and consumer education are examples of areas currently receiving special attention by state decision-makers.

Other laws also affect inservice education. In many states, collective-bargaining legislation provides that terms of employment, including inservice education, are subject to negotiation. Therefore, collective-bargaining agreements must often be renegotiated to effect the changes necessary to implement new programs. In many school districts, inservice education decisions are made in joint teacher-administrator forums established by law, policy, or contractual agreements. Certification rules may also impose requirements that influence decisions by teachers on inservice programs.

The teaching force itself is a significant new variable. Turnover has been reduced, more teachers view their occupation as a career rather than as a stepping-stone, and average age and levels of experience are increasing. Teachers therefore have a significant vested interest in the quality of program and in their involvement in design and implementation of program. Teachers are also highly organized at all levels—from the national scene to individual school buildings. Their organization provides a capability to exert considerable influence on school program and policies.

All these factors suggest that the designers of new professional development programs for preservice and inservice teachers must address the following general needs:

- creating an organizational structure for policy-making and operation that will reflect a partnership among the institutions and agencies directly involved;
- developing a means for shared decision-making among the responsible participants, with special attention to the input of teachers;
- relating graduate-credit systems to off-campus, field-based programs and financing college/university participation when credit accumulation is not appropriate or relevant;
- extending and recasting a straightforward program of teacher education into a field-based program of curriculum development and instructional improvement at the school and in the college/university, and engaging all participants in learner-consultant-innovator-evalua-

tor roles in a consortium of professional educators for the advancement of student learning.

Table 1 illustrates several changing aspects of teacher education as the emphasis shifts to a preservice-inservice continuum.

Table 1. The Shifting Emphasis to Inservice Teacher Education

Where We Are or Have Been	*Where We Seem to be Going*
Staff roles and responsibilities	
Inservice education and career development viewed as an individual responsibility	Inservice education and career development viewed as an individual, colleague-to-colleague, and school responsibility
College/university personnel functioning as managers	College/university and school district personnel functioning as program facilitators
Interns* working individually and in teams, usually with one teacher	Teachers, interns, and aides working cooperatively
Parents working occasionally on a short-term, voluntary basis	Parents, aides, and interns working in the school as partners on a continuous basis
Operational procedures	
Courses offered primarily on the college/university campus at times established by the college/university	Teachers, the school district, and the college/university collaborating to develop inservice education wherever and whenever needed and desired
The college/university independent and autonomous in determining inservice education	Inservice education determined by assessing the needs of school program and school personnel and cooperatively using the information in planning
Inservice education programs largely repetitive and stereotyped	Creative models of inservice education developed through infusing new ideas
Instructional improvement viewed as an administrative concern and responsibility	Instructional improvement viewed as a professional concern and responsibility
Inservice education funded solely by the individual or the school system and controlled by the college/university or school system	Inservice education funded through the college/university and the school district, but controlled by a professional consortium
Funds provided to the college/university based on student credits	Funds provided to the college/university or school district based on program needs

*The term "intern" is used to describe the prospective teacher.

Table 1 continued

Where We Are or Have Been	*Where We Seem to be Going*
Training programs	
Offer isolated courses and workshops, or course sequences planned to meet college/university degree requirements	Facilitate individually developed professional programs as part of career-long training
Process large numbers of teachers through the same courses, with everyone doing essentially the same things	Personalize and individualize programs to improve curriculum or instruction
View the individual as the client	View the individual and the organization in which he or she works as clients
Often rely on big names as experts	Rely on many people, but particularly on one another in the organization as helpers
Governance	
The college/university exclusively autonomous	The college/university, teacher organization, and school district collaborating
The decision-making process closed	The decision-making open and shared
The college/university staff advising and consulting	The college/university, teacher organization, and school district operating on a parity basis
The college/university having complete and total power	Shared power among cooperating organizations
The college/university acting in isolation	The college/university acting within a consortium involving the teacher organization, school district, and community
Teacher education viewed solely as a function of the college/university	Teacher education viewed as a cooperative enterprise between the college/university, teacher organization, school district, and the profession

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Edelfelt, R. A., & Johnson, M. (Eds.). *Rethinking in-service education.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1975.

Chapter Two

Criteria for Local Inservice Education Programs

Roy A. Edelfelt

"What criteria should guide inservice education at the local level?" This question is heard all across the country these days from teachers, administrators, school board members, college professors, and others.

Criteria are more helpful than prescriptions to educators who want to design their own inservice education program. Criteria do not dictate the substance and the essence of program; they suggest standards and characteristics. They also set forth principles for decisions about the conditions and circumstances of planning and operation.

The 29 criteria for local inservice education programs to be discussed in this chapter were first enunciated in question form in *Rethinking In-Service Education* (Edelfelt, 1975, pp. 83-84). They were then recast as statements and refined in connection with the writing of the paper on which Chapter 1 of this book is based. Next, they were built into an instrument (similar to the one in Appendix A) that was completed and evaluated by teachers, administrators, college and state department personnel, and staff and leaders in teacher organizations throughout the nation. The criteria were then modified and tested again with teams of teachers, administrators, teacher organization representatives, college and state department personnel, and Teacher Corps site personnel from 15 states. The criteria that follow are the result. They are not *the* criteria for local inservice education, but they reflect the experience and opinions of many thoughtful people.

As Table 2 illustrates, inservice education has many distinct purposes. The purpose for which these criteria are mainly intended is school improvement. But purposes do overlap. Inservice education for school improvement may be study for which credit is earned, and it may lead to a credential, a degree, or other academic recognition. Categories of inservice education are never pure, and purposes are seldom singular

Table 2. Purposes and Conditions of Inservice Education*

Purpose	*Process*	*Setting*	*Legal Sanction and/or Administrative Authority*	*Responsible Agency and/or Standard of Control*	*Reward*	*Motivation*
Degree, credential, licensure	Formal college or university study	College or university campus, extension center	State law, state board policy, state department regulation, state professional licensure commission regulation	State board policy, state department regulation, state professional licensure commission standard	Degree, credential, license, better job opportunities	Legal and professional requirement
[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]

Professional advancement or promotion	Formal and informal study of teaching, administration, counseling, etc.; internship	College or university campus, extension center, school district, teacher center, professional development center	School district policy, state law or regulation	School district criteria, state certification requirement	Qualification for better position, employment in better position	Requirement set by local and/or state agency
Retraining for new assignment	Courses, workshops, institutes, special training in new level or subject	College or university campus, school district	School district policy, state law or regulation	School district criteria, state certification requirement	Qualification for new position, employment in new position	Requirement determined by job, state certification requirement
Personal professional development	Choice of individual teacher	Setting appropriate to choice	None; but personal standards and peer pressure influence development	Personal/professional standard	New knowledge, improved competence, self-satisfaction	Personal desire or commitment

*Adapted from "Inservice Education: Alive with Interest, Fraught with Problems" by R. A. Edelfelt, *Inservice* (Newsletter of the National Council of States on Inservice Education), Vol. 1, No. 2, September 1976, pp. 2-3, 9.

(Joyce, Howey, & Yarger, 1976). Consequently adaptations should be made in definition, purpose, and criteria appropriate to particular school systems and buildings. However, for the criteria included in this booklet the major focus is consistent with the following definition: Inservice education is "a program of activities promoted or directed by an educational organization [and] designed to increase the competencies needed by K-12 personnel in the performance of their duties" (State of Washington, 1976, p. 2).

Criteria are grouped into five sections: Decision-Making, Relationship to the Program of the School, Resources, Commitment to Teacher Education, and Rewards. The discussion following each criterion attempts to make meaning more clear and address some issues the criterion raises.

The criteria may be used in several ways. They are probably of most value as considerations that any school faculty or teacher center policy board might review in thinking through ground rules for designing and determining program. The criteria provide basic ideas on which professionals can plan and operate a program.

Another use of the criteria is as survey items to get a reading of the perceptions of district or building personnel. A survey can provide a fairly quick and efficient starting point. It will tell what respondents think of current circumstances, what they think desirable in inservice education, and the priority they place on each of the criteria. A survey instrument appears in Appendix A.

Asking respondents to indicate for each criterion "What Is" and "What Should Be," as the instrument in Appendix A does, makes it possible to assess the distance between these points—that is, the discrepancy between circumstances that exist and the aspirations of respondents. Tallying the third column of the instrument gives an indication of the degree to which personnel think particular criteria are important. Looking at both the mean discrepancy and the mean priority of each item for all respondents provides information on both the direction in which respondents want to move and the importance that they assign to such a move.

Decision-Making

There are six criteria that deal with aspects of decision-making. The process of decision-making is a first consideration because it sets the tone of collective action and specifies how people will be regarded.

1. *Decision-making processes are based on cooperation between all major interest groups, that is, school district, college/university, and teacher organization.*

It may be instructive to explain why "cooperation" is used rather than "collaboration," the latter term enjoying considerable use in inservice education. Cooperation was chosen because the meaning of the word is more appropriate. It means "the action of cooperating: common effort" (Webster's, 1974, p. 250) and "association of persons for common benefit" whereas collaboration means working "jointly with others esp. in an intellectual endeavor" (p. 219).

Obviously cooperation is a first condition. Unless the major interest groups work and act together for common benefit, there can be little progress on inservice education. However, cooperation should not suggest that there will not be conflict. Conflict may, in fact, be productive—provided it is dealt with in ways that find resolution and accommodation of different points of view or that result in compromise or the synthesis of various persuasions into new and better ideas.

School districts, colleges/universities, and teacher organizations admittedly have different views on some issues. Each organization exists for different reasons. When they come together to cooperate on inservice education, it is inevitable that differences will become evident. One such difference may be the criteria to which each can subscribe for inservice education programs. Thus, a first order of business may be to examine the criteria that follow, to assess the level of agreement, and to select or develop criteria on which inservice education programs can be planned and operated.

2. *Decisions are made by the people who are affected, and the decisions are made as close as possible to the situation where they will be operative.*

Obviously decision-making for the design of local programs should be locally based. But how locally based? Should authority be delegated to on-site staff? What decisions should be made at the building level? Who should be involved, in addition to major interest groups? What part should parents and students play? What part should the state department of education play?

The argument for building-level decision-making is that it involves the people who are most immediately responsible for improving school program. And there is some evidence that the school building is the largest viable unit for change and improvement. Current arguments for more decentralization support this notion.

Inservice education must also have school district sanction and support. Thus, some decision-making should take place at that level. Such decisions most appropriately deal with facilitating and coordinating inservice programs at the building level and attending to those elements of program that are district-wide.

Additionally education is the responsibility of the state, so some decisions will be made by state departments and state boards of education. (For a discussion of decisions that are appropriately made at this level, see Edelfelt & Allen, 1967, and Edelfelt & Johnson, 1975, particularly pp. 38-55, 80-82).

The above paragraphs address different levels of decision-making. At each level, criterion #1 holds—that there is cooperation that includes at least the school district, college/university, and teacher organization. There may be—in some cases there ought to be—established committees or the like to make the necessary decisions.

Some provision for parent and student involvement is also essential. However, neither group has sufficient professional expertise to be a full partner. Input from parents and students is probably most effective at the building level, where they can react directly to issues that affect them. Certainly the participation of parents and students is necessary if clients are to be heard. Involving parents and students also helps raise public and client awareness about how difficult inservice education and school improvement are.

3. *The cooperation of major interest groups is based on a concept of parity for each group.*

To understand this criterion it is most important to be clear on a definition of parity. Parity is used here to mean "the quality or state of being equal or equivalent" (Webster's, 1974, p. 833). The major interest groups, then, should be equal in the weight of their opinion on an issue in question. Parity is probably most clear in voting, each group having equal weight in any vote.

Equality will probably not exist in degree of expertise, length of experience, or competence in particular areas. For a discussion of this issue, see criterion #26.

4. *Explicit procedures exist to assure fairness in decision-making.*

This criterion goes beyond ensuring equality or parity. It calls for procedures that guarantee justice and objectivity, even impartiality and dispassion. The latter should not suggest that zeal for an idea, advocacy of a cause, or promotion of a vested interest has no place in discussion. It means that safeguards must exist to ensure that good and fair judgment is exercised in decision-making and that there are procedures to guard against exploitation of one interest group by the others.

Explicit procedures might include required consensus for major decisions, veto powers in voting, specified procedures for due process, an appeal procedure, and/or binding arbitration.

5. *There are policies (e.g., in a collective-bargaining agreement) relating to inservice education.*

A "policy" is "a definite course or method of action selected . . . to guide and determine present and future decisions" (Webster's, 1974, p. 890). "Policies" here refers to school district policies, of which the collective-bargaining agreement is an example.

Teacher organizations are seeking to have many matters relating to inservice education included in collective-bargaining contracts. However, there are procedures and processes in most school districts that go beyond topics covered in collective-bargaining contracts. Therefore, the term "policies" is used to assure that all matters dealing with inservice education are encompassed.

6. *Inservice education programs are institutionalized.*

This criterion means that inservice education is an established part of the system, a significant practice within the school organization. It also suggests that worthy new programs will become part of the system.

In many school districts, inservice education is not an integral part of the school system. The school district has traditionally seen its primary goal as educating the young. Too often it has seen that goal as its sole obligation, not recognizing any responsibility for the inservice education of teachers. Gradually, however, school districts are accepting some responsibility for inservice education because they recognize its influence in improving school program.

Relationship to the Program of the School

Two provisos should be made explicit regarding the criteria in this and other sections. One is that the first five criteria below are not mutually exclusive; that is, inservice education can be directly related to curriculum development and can also improve instruction and meet the needs of students, teachers, and school program. Second, some of the criteria in this section may seem similar to criteria that appear under other headings; for example, criterion #12 in this section may seem similar to criterion #16 in the section on "Resources." Not so. This section is concerned about how inservice education is provided for within the school program; the "Resources" section is concerned about whether the resource, time, is available to engage in inservice education.

7. *Inservice education is directly related to curriculum development.*

Certainly "curriculum" must be defined for this criterion to have meaning. Among the broadest definitions is "all the learning experiences for which the school is responsible." A bit more limited is "all of the planned learning outcomes for which the school is responsible." Obviously those who use these criteria will need to agree on their own definition.

Another way to be precise in definition is to apply this criterion to the curriculum at the building level; that is, to state the criterion, Inservice education is directly related to curriculum development at the building level.

8. *Inservice education is directly related to instructional improvement.*

There is general agreement that instructional improvement is a central and compelling reason for inservice education. This is probably the most noncontroversial criterion.

There are, of course, other purposes for inservice education, some of which are stated in the next three criteria. An important issue is establishing a proper balance among purposes and being explicit and public about priorities.

9. *Inservice education is based on the needs of students.*

In fact, inservice education may be only indirectly based on the needs of students because teachers' problems as influenced by students may be the main emphasis of inservice education. For example, attention to teachers' skills in classroom management may be the result of student behavior problems. This criterion is intended to suggest that inservice education of teachers will have outcomes that contribute to meeting the needs of students. This criterion should help keep inservice education relevant.

There are types of inservice education that are not related to the needs of students. This criterion does not suggest that these types of inservice education are unjustified or unimportant. The critical issue is finding the appropriate balance between inservice programs that help teachers respond more adequately to student needs and inservice programs with other goals.

10. *Inservice education is based on the needs of teachers.*

Teachers strongly concur with this criterion, particularly when it means the needs of teachers as perceived by teachers. Traditionally, inservice education has been prescribed for teachers by others. Yet psychology supports the notion that learning is optimum when what is learned satisfies the needs of the learner. There is also research evidence that teacher involvement is crucial in change projects if success is to be expected (Greenwood, Mann, & McLaughlin, 1975). If a central purpose of inservice education is school improvement, teachers must be involved.

There are other views on this criterion. College and university people, who have long dominated formal inservice education through graduate study, argue that they have the knowledge and expertise to determine what teachers ought to know. School district administrators, curriculum directors, and supervisors argue that teachers' perceived needs are but one important determinant of inservice education; they suggest that inservice education should also be compatible with district supervision/evaluation standards. Advocates of competency-based inservice programs argue that teacher needs should be determined in relation to needed teacher competencies.

This criterion may be one that requires considerable discussion.

11. *Inservice education is based on the needs of school program.*

In order to base inservice education on the needs of school program, the school's goals must be clear and public, and there must be consensus on their importance and validity. It is unusual to have both those conditions in force. However, inservice education that is intended to satisfy the needs of school program might be an effective device to get clear, common understandings and agreements on school goals and purposes. That approach, of course, is usually much more feasible if the school program in question is the building program over which teachers and administrators have some control.

If it is to work for the program of the building, inservice education should include the principal and all other personnel who contribute to the building program (see criterion #28).

12. *Inservice education is a part of a teacher's regular teaching load.*

This criterion is probably the most significant of all because it proposes a new concept of the job of teaching. It suggests *more than* "released time" or "Tuesdays for thinking." It affirms that study, exploration, development, and learning are integral parts of professional practice and should be a legitimate part of the teacher's regular responsibilities.

Note that the inservice education under discussion here is that related to the improvement of school program—inservice education that responds to student, teacher, and program needs. There are, of course, other types of inservice education that teachers will engage in for their own purposes—for example, to obtain additional credentials and degrees or to gain additional knowledge and skill in teacher organization matters (see Table 2).

13. *The techniques and methods used in inservice education are consistent with fundamental principles of good teaching and learning.*

This criterion does not suggest that adult learning is identical with child and adolescent learning. It suggests that learning at any level is essentially the same process and that good principles of teaching are universal. It recommends that approaches to teaching and learning used in inservice education illustrate the best professional practice.

Approaches (techniques and methods) and the expectations for learning should be made public (see Corwin & Edelfelt, 1976, pp. 8-9).

14. *Research/evaluation is an integral part of inservice education.*

Monitoring that provides for feedback, and evaluation coupled with research are integral parts of inservice education. Data should be gathered to establish goals and objectives, to make decisions about content and procedures, and to assess the degree to which goals and objectives are achieved in an inservice program.

Inservice education should also use and reflect research findings and promote more systematic and scientific approaches to collecting and treating data in teaching.

Outside talents should be employed when necessary to assist teachers and others in designing research and evaluation schemes. Teachers should determine what is to be evaluated; researchers can provide the technical assistance to make results as reliable and sophisticated as possible.

15. *All those who participate in inservice education are engaged in both learning and teaching.*

Inservice education is not merely a matter of one group dispensing information to another; each participant has some special area of insight, talent, expertise, and perception. Included in "all those who participate" are teachers, college professors, school administrators and supervisors, curriculum directors, etc. All these participants at one time or another will be engaged as learners and teachers.

Resources

16. *Time is available during regular instructional hours for inservice education.*

Time in a teacher's working day is a very precious commodity. There is never enough. Providing time for inservice education during regular instructional hours requires some changes in both scheduling and attitudes. Attitudes may be the most difficult to change. Some teachers and administrators do not think that a teacher is at work unless he or she is engaged in teaching students. Studying diagnostic procedures while trying to analyze learning problems of students, or developing a curriculum unit to fit a particular group or individual student and studying curriculum theory in the process—these seldom register as legitimate teacher activities on school time.

Schedules will also be difficult to change, particularly if student-teacher ratios remain as high as in recent years and if all students must constantly be in classes or supervised by teachers.

The subject of time to teach has had some study (Provus & Jacobson, 1966), but the subject of time for teachers to learn has had practically no attention.

17. *Adequate personnel are available from the school district and college/university for inservice education.*

"Adequate" means sufficient in both quality and quantity. "Personnel . . . from the school district" includes teachers. Practicing classroom teachers are at times the best instructors for other teachers.

Mentioning only school district and higher education may be too restrictive. Other resources exist in the regional education laboratories, state departments of education, boards of cooperative educational services, intermediate school districts, teacher centers, teacher organizations, administrator organizations, etc. Personnel from all these agencies should be available when appropriate.

18. *Adequate materials are available.*

Again, "adequate" means quality as well as quantity. Sometimes quality materials are available, but not in sufficient quantity. This is particularly true with books and audiovisual materials; the wait to use a particular item can be so long that the relevant moment has passed when the item becomes available.

Access to materials is another problem. Some instructional materials centers and teacher centers provide both excellent access and excellent consultant help in selection and use. Too often, however, teachers are left to the time-consuming job of seeking out for themselves the material they need, and they get no counsel on its use.

19. *Inservice education makes use of community resources.*

Despite field trips, catalogs of community resources, business education days, etc., most schools make relatively little use of the people, places, and things available in the immediate environment of the school. Inservice education should help teachers become aware of, conversant with, and skilled in the use of community resources.

There should be a clearinghouse to match instructional resources, particularly those outside the school, with teacher needs.

20. *Funds for inservice education are provided by the local school district.*

The source of funds (local, state, or federal) that local districts use to pay for inservice education is still a debatable issue. The local district's obligation to provide funds is less controversial, particularly among teachers. They contend that the major benefit of inservice education designed to improve instruction accrues to students and the community, and thus, this kind of inservice education should be at public expense.

Property taxes in most communities are already viewed as excessive. Inservice education should probably be largely financed by state funds that are earmarked for that purpose and disbursed to districts with approved programs. Federal funds should also be available for inservice education. However, they should be transmitted through the state.

There are recommendations that inservice education be paid for by regional education agencies. Some contend that institutions of higher education, teacher organizations, and individuals should pay the bill. The purposes and the benefactors of inservice education should be considered in making decisions about who has fiscal responsibility. The main goal is assuring that funding for inservice education is provided on a continuous basis so that programs cease to be piecemeal and haphazard, and so that inservice education will not be the first cut when budgets must be pared.

21. *Inservice education is paid for by state funds provided for that purpose.*

Maintaining adequate schools and quality personnel to staff them is primarily a state responsibility. States have accepted this responsibility, but in maintaining the quality of school personnel the main emphasis has been the initial preparation of teachers. It is time for state officials to recognize and accept responsibility for inservice education. In a society that is changing rapidly, preservice teacher education can never be adequate for a career in teaching. Clearly, some areas of teacher competence are better learned in practice. Inequities in funding among local districts can be compensated for by state funding, and monitoring to ensure quality can be done with greater objectivity by a disinterested agency of the state.

Funding and other aspects of support require state legal sanctions (see Edelfelt, 1975, pp. 80-82). Such sanctions would institutionalize and legitimize the organization, design, concept, and support of inservice education. No states now have sanctions adequate to that task (Giffert, Harper, & Schember, 1976).

Some contend that funding must be shared by decision-making groups (see criteria #1 and #2) or else parity will fail. The counterargument is that some of the major interest groups (e.g., institutions of higher education and teacher organizations) have no direct responsibility for education in public schools and no sources of funds that could legitimately be spent on inservice education to improve school program.

Commitment to Teacher Education

22. *Professional growth is seen as a continuum from preservice preparation through career-long professional development.*

Learning to teach and maintaining competence to teach is a continuous process. However, there are checkpoints at which judgments are made about meeting requirements for graduation, certification, and tenure. Unfortunately, these checkpoints have separated professional growth into segments. For example, undergraduate preparation is seldom connected smoothly with initial practice and the beginning of inservice education. There is typically no recognized transition period. A college senior abruptly becomes a 10th-grade English teacher between June and September.

The criterion means that professional growth is a continuous process, not only in the mind of the individual professional, but also in the formal provisions made for professional growth. Preservice preparation provides a substantial beginning toward a holistic concept of a professional teacher, and inservice education continues development within the framework of that concept. Teaching competence, then, is developed and honed in a constant and conscious effort to make professional improvement a career-long process.

23. *The inservice education program reflects the many different ways that professionals grow.*

This criterion is concerned with the response of the system of inservice education to the individual. It is intended to remind planners that growth patterns differ in style, timing, and interests. Individual teaching style can be promoted by fostering individual learning style.

Many options should be open to teachers in inservice education, even options that lead to similar goals. For example, one teacher might seek to improve his or her effectiveness in teaching reading by taking a course, another by observing in selected schools, a third by working in a clinic, and a fourth by working closely with an advisor in analyzing practice. All these options are constructive and viable and should be legitimate.

A teacher's first step in employing this criterion might be self-evaluation to identify his or her uniqueness and peculiarities. An important provision is having someone competent and compatible to give counsel. School districts might well consider the British advisor system (see Tyrell, 1964) or some other way to provide teachers with counselors who are not threatening and who have no authority over teachers.

24. *The inservice education program addresses the many different roles and responsibilities that a teacher must assume.*

Another way to state this criterion is, The inservice education program addresses the many different functions of a teacher.

All teacher education is focused primarily on the role of teacher of students. The emphasis is on the teacher's encounter with the student(s). Yet teachers spend an important part of their time planning curriculum, devising instructional strategy, and developing evaluation schemes. They also function as a member of a faculty, a liaison with parents, a member of a profession, etc. Inservice education should include study, analysis, and interpretation of the problems and issues connected with all these roles and help teachers develop competence in each of them.

25. *Inservice education is related to research and development.*

Inservice education should always have an experimental edge, particularly now when interest in inservice education has been aroused and there is an acute need for more effective programs.

Inservice education designed for school improvement is especially amenable to research and development. That emphasis brings curriculum development and instructional improvement to the fore as the substance of inservice education. How actual practice and program interface with professional development must be documented by research .

College and university faculty, as well as teachers, will find this emphasis of inservice education a very fertile field for research. There is interest at thousands of schools.

Usually college and university staff members are not well rewarded for working at school sites. However, the combination of assistance with inservice education and research on new developments can legitimize assignments in public schools for higher education professors.

26. *The respective strengths of the school district, the college/university, the teacher organization, and the community are used in the inservice education program.*

This criterion is difficult to achieve because none of these groups have inservice education as their primary mission. Who will coordinate the use of strengths? How can the different competencies of the groups be used most effectively? Obviously a process must be developed, one that reflects the criteria in the first section (on decision-making).

There may be apprehensions about one group dominating. Certainly, special strengths will make a particular agency preeminent at times. For example, if the focus of inservice education is school improvement, the school district has a singular strength in teachers and other personnel who know students and existing programs. The school faculty, then, is preeminent in its knowledge and awareness of the people and circumstances that are affected. Faculty members should have the major voice in decisions about inservice education that is designed to improve school program. On the other hand, university and state department of education personnel may be more knowledgeable about certain content and techniques that will contribute to school program improvement. They can serve effectively as consultants, guides, and counselors. Still different is the teacher organization with its acute awareness of teacher needs, for example, in regard to conditions of work or teacher involvement in decision-making. These concerns are best expressed through the organization as the collective agent of the teachers. By contrast, if the focus is a research project, or dissemination of research findings, the university might have the greatest competence and be a primary force.

The respective strengths of different groups, then, differentiate their roles in various activities. However, one of the confounding problems of our times is whether cooperating groups can decide when the preeminence of one group, the expertise of another group, or democratic decision-making should prevail—or how to make them coexist. The whole issue needs more discussion than can be provided here. Writings by Denemark and Yff (1974), Darland (undated), and Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash (1976) may help to clarify the issues in local discussions.

27. *Internship and student teaching experiences are used for analysis and study in the inservice education program.*

Internship and student teaching experiences (clinical or laboratory experiences) provide unique opportunities for analysis and evaluation. Analysis and evaluation are usually more open and candid because the neophyte is still in training and expects to be under rigorous scrutiny. The situation provides an opportunity for regular teachers and teacher trainers to probe questions of teaching more deeply than is usually possible when a regular member of the staff is expected to use his or her own teaching as the subject of analysis. Yet the lessons learned can be applied by the regular teacher who supervises analysis and study. In fact, the regular teacher often learns the lesson better than the neophyte because the regular teacher has had more experience.

This criterion supports criterion #22, which deals with professional growth as a continuum, but here the emphasis is on what the mature teacher can learn from the analysis of teaching with the neophyte.

28. *Inservice education is available to all professional and nonprofessional personnel.*

The people who work in a school—teachers, administrators, supervisors, secretaries, aides, janitors, custodians, nurses, groundskeepers, etc. —all influence the program of that school. If inservice education is to improve school program, it must include all personnel in appropriate ways.

Rewards

29. *There is a reward system for teachers, administrators, and college/university personnel who engage in inservice education programs.*

The rewards for inservice education have been primarily economic benefits and additional credentials. These are essential rewards. But there are others, some of which, like approbation and recognition, are very simple. It should also be possible to earn additional freedom, new privileges, higher status, and greater prestige. Ironically, more responsibility can also be a reward.

All of these rewards are largely extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards should be promoted too. In a sense, status and prestige are intrinsic because they must be earned; they can seldom be bestowed. Pride is certainly largely an intrinsic reward. So is increased self-esteem because of greater competence gained through inservice education.

Whether extrinsic or intrinsic, rewards to all who participate in inservice education should be much more clear and precise.

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Part Two

Examples of Local Inservice Education Programs

Introduction to Part Two

All of the educators who had a part in expanding and refining the 29 criteria in the previous chapter also indicated that some distance separates the criteria and the inservice education programs in their school systems. The criteria, then, are statements of what should be, not what is. But they are not totally dreams. Some inservice education programs do illustrate several of the criteria. Nine such programs are described in the chapters that follow. Table 3 indicates the criteria illustrated by each of the programs. Authors were asked to identify the five or six most prominent criteria illustrated by their program. Most found it difficult to narrow their selections to half a dozen. Thus, the table includes some criteria that seem to be in play but are not prominent.

Table 3. Criteria Illustrated by Nine Local Inservice Education Programs

	Lansing, Michigan (Chap. 3)	Harris County, Georgia (Chap. 4)	Lee County, Florida (Chap. 5)	East Anglia, United Kingdom (Chap. 6)	Portland, Oregon (Chap. 7)	Bellingham, Washington (Chap. 8)	Winnsboro, South Carolina (Chap. 9)	Detroit, Michigan (Chap. 10)	Boston, Massachusetts (Chap. 11)
Decision-Making									
1	✓		+		✓		✓	+	
2					✓				✓
3						✓		+	
4									
5						✓			
6				+					
Relationship to School Program									
7	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓
8	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
9	✓	✓	+	+		✓	✓	+	✓
10	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
11			+		✓		✓	+	✓
12	✓	✓						✓	
13	✓	+							+

Table 3 continued

	Lansing, Michigan (Chap. 3)	Harris County, Georgia (Chap. 4)	Lee County, Florida (Chap. 5)	East Anglia, United Kingdom (Chap. 6)	Portland, Oregon (Chap. 7)	Bellingham, Washington (Chap. 8)	Winnsboro, South Carolina (Chap. 9)	Detroit, Michigan (Chap. 10)	Boston, Massachusetts (Chap. 11)
14						✓			
15	✓	+		✓				+	
Resources									
16	✓	+	✓					✓	
17	✓	+							
18	✓								
19		+						+	+
20						✓			
21			✓						
Commitment to Teacher Education									
22	✓	+	+					✓	
23		+	✓				✓	+	+
24		✓	+						✓
25	✓			✓					
26	✓		+						
27	✓							✓	
28		✓	+				✓		
Rewards									
29		+	✓		✓	✓	✓		

✓ = most prominent, + = in play

It is no surprise that almost all of the programs illustrate criteria dealing with the relationship of inservice education to the school program and that very few illustrate criteria dealing with decision-making. Cooperative governance of inservice education is prominent in education rhetoric, but as yet it is not widely practiced, at least as illustrated by these programs. Criteria dealing with a commitment to teacher education in public schools are few in number. Resources too get little attention.

As more of the 29 criteria become operational, it will be instructive to document what happens to the quality and effectiveness of inservice education. Obviously many criteria not now in use were identified by teachers, administrators, and college personnel because they thought the criteria were important to the improvement of inservice education. It is hoped that many people will test all the criteria and evaluate the premises on which they are based.

Chapter Three

Improving the Professional Growth Opportunities of Elementary Teaching Personnel

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The program for Excellence in Elementary Education (the Triple-E program) in Lansing, Michigan, provides a set of interdependent experiences aimed at optimizing the quality and availability of professional growth opportunities for persons specializing in elementary education. It is designed for prospective teachers, teachers, prospective teacher educators, and teacher educators. A major assumption of the designers was that learning experiences for each unique set of participants are optimized when all participants engage in simultaneous learning experiences; that is, a synergistic learning effect can occur for all when everyone participates as learner as well as teacher. Therefore, the Triple-E program should not be viewed primarily as a teacher preparation program or an inservice program or an improvement program for teacher educators. Rather, it should be viewed as all of these working in concert to produce desirable outcomes for children, educators, and the Lansing community. The program is predicated on the notion that outcomes will be most constructive when diverse sets of educators work together and share decision-making on how teaching and learning might be improved for any particular set of students, be they children or adults.

A Brief But Necessary History

The program originated in the early 1970s with the elementary education segment of the project on Training the Trainers of Teachers (the

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* Assistance was received from Betty Brown, Janine Goalsby, Judy Jennings, Barbara Langenbacher, Rena Moyer, and Quintella Walker, Lansing Public Schools.

Triple-T project), which was supported by the United States Office of Education and cooperatively designed and implemented by Michigan State University's College of Education and the Lansing School District. When Triple-T funding ended in 1973, the College of Education and the Lansing School District chose to provide continued support so that the promising ideas and practices initiated by the elementary Triple-T project could be continued. The Triple-T project continued and maintained itself for the next year, but was unable to either expand or significantly improve because it was operating with limited funds.

In fall 1974, the modest Triple-T project was merged with the District and College's Eighth-Cycle Teacher Corps project, and the combined project was dubbed Triple-E, for Excellence in Elementary Education. The merger resulted in the realization of a unique set of opportunities and activities not considered possible before by either individual project. That is, combining the two projects created a number of more powerful means of providing for the professional growth of teacher trainees, teachers, and teacher educators.

One might say that the Triple-E program was a product of good fortune, good problem-solving, and goodwill: Good fortune came from the lack of enough personnel to operate both programs; good problem-solving occurred when participants saw the possibility and potential payoffs of combining the two programs; goodwill came from the many different persons—teacher candidates, teachers, administrators, and teacher educators—who struggled together to work out the intricacies of the logistically complicated program.

A More Specific Elaboration

The Triple-T program in Lansing was initially aimed at improving the quality of teacher preparation. One means to improve teacher preparation was to have both prospective teachers *and* teacher educators out in the schools for significantly greater periods of time than was typically allocated. Forty volunteers made up the initial set of teacher candidates who observed and assisted Lansing teachers in the first term of their first year of college. They subsequently worked in schools every week of every term for the remainder of their undergraduate years, with gradually increased amounts of responsibility in both time and teaching functions. Each candidate worked in four Lansing schools in the course of this time. The teacher educators working in the program made frequent and regular school observations, visitations, and demonstrations. By the time the prospective teachers were beginning their senior year, they had had more practice-teaching experience (in schools, with children) than is usually acquired by the graduating senior in the traditional teacher education program. Hence, they were "prepared," in the conventional sense, for a beginning teaching assignment. However, the Triple-T trainees had one year remaining for additional instruction and still richer supervised teaching experience.

The Teacher Corps program in Lansing was similarly focused on teacher preparation, but with a special emphasis on recruiting and preparing minority teaching personnel. Although these prospective teachers entered the program in their junior year, they also had intensive school experience because their program required a half day in school every day of the academic year.

It happened that the need for and possibility of combining the two programs occurred when the first sets of interns in both projects were in their senior year. Because of their prior experience, the two sets of interns were relatively well prepared to assume substantial and significant portions of teaching responsibility. Given this factor and the healthy diversity of strengths and backgrounds, each Teacher Corps intern was paired with a Triple-T intern, and the two interns were then teamed with a cooperating teacher in one of the participating schools. In the fall term of the interns' senior year, each member of these three-person teams alternated in the role of lead teacher. Then one intern assumed the bulk of the teaching responsibility for the winter term, and the other assumed it for the spring term. In this way, the interns were prepared for both team-teaching and a relatively self-contained teaching situation.

At all times, the cooperating teacher maintained ultimate teaching responsibility, in the sense of approving the goals and strategies proposed and implemented by the interns. Through the effort-sharing, however, the cooperating teacher was able to acquire several days a week for professional development and curriculum development on school time. (This latter benefit was one we especially came to value.)

University personnel regularly worked in the participating schools with the cooperating teachers and the interns. They always observed and assisted interns when cooperating teachers were participating in inservice instruction. Additional support was provided by the District, which released several teachers to assist with the organization, observation, and management of the various facets of the program.

Our Early Set of Worries

The original concerns of the participants who ventured into the combined program centered on the following issues:

- Will any deleterious effects on children result from adding teaching personnel to the classroom or giving cooperating teachers some time away from the classroom?
- Will parents be upset with the experienced teacher leaving his or her classroom during the school day for on-the-job professional education and curriculum development?
- Will the interns cooperate or compete? A special concern here was that Teacher Corps interns were receiving a stipend plus tuition whereas the other interns were receiving no support whatsoever.
- Will teachers value and profit from inservice activities and curriculum development? Can/will they help facilitate a productive interaction with the university professors and graduate students?
- Will principals be tolerant of all the traffic and potential confusion that may arise with interns, teachers, and university personnel coming and going at all times?
- Will the teacher educators be both sensitive and strong enough to respond constructively to the needs, requests, and demands of the school participants? Can they tolerate the increased pressures and inconveniences of the added travel requirements, teaching classes with frequent interruptions and sometimes in cramped spaces, etc.?

All of these unknowns were worrisome as we anticipated and planned the trial activities. At the end of the 1974-75 year, however, the experiment was judged to be a clear success by those participating. Although occasional problems arose, none of the major concerns or fears were realized. There were no apparent deleterious effects on students or serious problems among or between the interns, teachers, administrators, and teacher educators. To the contrary, the response of all parties was overwhelmingly positive. Although occasional conflicts and differences of opinion naturally occurred, they were resolved through regular problem-solving sessions. The decision at the end of the year was to continue refinement and development of the program. However, the task was complicated by personnel limitations and necessary changes in the Teacher Corps project.

The Readjustments

For the 1975-76 academic year, there was only one remaining set of interns entering their fourth year with the necessary background and skills to team-teach with and subsequently release a cooperating teacher. Further, the Teacher Corps project was entering a new cycle of training in which its emphasis was to be on graduate training and inservice teacher education in the context of "total school involvement." Prior to this time, there had been six schools involved in the Triple-E program, with three to five cooperating teachers in each. For 1975-76, one school was selected in which teachers and administrators agreed to participate in inservice development and demonstration. The Triple-E interns were all placed in the one school, giving them the opportunity for team and self-contained training experiences and providing the cooperating teachers with the needed time for inservice education.

In the fall term, all teachers and the principal participated with all teacher educators in two half days of inservice education a week. Four of the Teacher Corps project's graduate interns also participated. The instruction emphasized the psychological and sociological foundations of curriculum development for elementary school youngsters. In the winter and spring, the teachers and teacher educators each participated as a member of a study and curriculum development team in reading, math, social-emotional education, or multicultural education. The development teams reviewed the relevant research literature in their respective curriculum areas and attempted to use the guidelines developed in the fall term to prepare model instructional units for demonstration.

Planning for the Future

In the meantime, however, a new set of Triple-E interns had to be recruited and prepared for the 1976-77 academic year if the Triple-E program was to continue functioning. Therefore, a number of teachers who had participated in the Triple-E program in prior years but were excluded in 1975-76 because of the Teacher Corps project's "total school" priority, joined together to (a) help prepare interns for the 1976-77 "total school" participation and (b) design a long-range program so that disruptive changes in national priorities and/or guidelines would not necessarily terminate the program. Thus, while one group of teachers and teacher educators were designing and developing curriculum and instruction for children and teachers in a single school, other teachers were engaged in overall program design and implementation. The recommendations of these teachers for continuation of the Triple-E program were presented to the Lansing/Michigan State University Teacher Center—an organization of school and university teachers and administrators who review all interinstitutional, school-related projects. They, in turn, have made recommendations to their respective institutions, that is, the Lansing School District, the University's College of Education, and the Lansing Schools Education Association.

Chapter Four

Harris County/Columbus College Teacher Corps Inservice Project

William Bruce, Janet Fleischauer, David Cooper, and Jarvis Sheperd

The philosophy of the Harris County/Columbus College Teacher Corps Project in Georgia is to make continuous inservice experience relevant to each teacher's classroom needs and to bring the entire staff of the educational institution into system-wide efforts to improve the quality of life in the schools. The project operates in five elementary schools and one middle school located in a rural county in west central Georgia. Approximately 100 teachers, 15 teacher aides, 25 food-service personnel, 15 maintenance workers, and 40 bus drivers are involved in nine staff development strands and two community-oriented strands that were developed with the "whole school" in mind. The strands and their primary objectives are:

Teacher-Oriented Strands

- Contingency and Logistics Management (CALM)—to increase use of positive reinforcement and to improve classroom management and use of time;
- Modification of Behavior (MOB)—to develop multicultural education, to improve communication and cooperation among teachers, and to bring about a more warm, accepting, and friendly atmosphere;
- Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching (DART)—to increase diagnostic-prescriptive teaching and to establish on-site laboratories within the classroom to model individualized diagnostic-prescriptive teaching;
- Saturation of Content Knowledge (SOCK)—to develop sequential and spiral learning through analysis of subject-matter concepts and skills.

Total Education Staff Strands

- Professionally Oriented Participation (POP)—to increase all school personnel's awareness of modern educational trends and to introduce alternative models of educating youth through observation of other

schools and participation in workshops and conventions;
- System-Wide Involvement in Performance (SIP)—to develop responsibility on the part of all system personnel for the educational well-being of each child.

Support Staff Strands

- Maintenance Operations Prerequisites (MOP)—to improve the learning environment by improving the performance of employees and to develop cooperative relationships between teachers, maintenance personnel, and students;
- Transportation and Safe Kids (TASK)—to develop management systems and learning climates for the transportation portion of the students' day and to train bus drivers in humanistic education concepts;
- Developments in Nutritional Education (DINE)—to develop pleasant lunchroom environments and to emphasize the relationship of good nutrition to school performance.

Community-Involvement Strands

- Multiple Opportunities to Help Enrich Resources (MOTHER)—to increase the use of parents and other volunteers in the classroom and to train them in teaching techniques;
- Home Opportunities to More Education (HOME)—to increase the ability of parents to prepare and assist their children in school-related learning in home situations.

The Harris County project has established a Training Resources Center as the vehicle to implement the training strands. The Center is charged with developing a sequential and developmental training program to meet the individual training needs of system employees, volunteers, and School Community Council members in relation to the system's curriculum and services, and to provide teachers with opportunities to receive college credit for classroom improvements. The primary objectives of the Center are to enhance student growth through improved performance by teachers, volunteers, and support-service personnel and to provide individualized and positive teacher and community support of all related behavior-modification and learning-strand activities.

The specific functions of the Center are:

- to coordinate all related training activities, including undergraduate courses, internships, graduate courses, noncredit courses, workshops, and individualized staff development activities;
- to individualize and implement related training experiences;
- to provide on-site supplemental resources (e.g., consultants, professors, a professional library, and instructional materials);
- to develop innovative training models;

- to provide systematic dissemination and feedback of information to supporting institutions of higher education with suggestions for program modifications of traditional campus training;
- to provide internal and external evaluation.

The Center is staffed by three resident field-based professors who work full-time in the Harris County schools to implement the training strands. Additional personnel of the Center are a community coordinator and an intern team composed of four interns and a team leader. These staff members act as stimulators and innovators in support of the public school laboratory.

The primary governing and policy-making body of the Harris County project is the School Community Council. It has 32 voting members representing all the major community institutions—government, family, business, religion, and education. There are seven teachers elected by the faculty of each school, six parents elected by the local parent-teacher association, two preachers elected by the black and white preacher organizations, one businessman selected by the Chamber of Commerce, one member of the county commission, the head of the Family and Children Services, one representative of the board of education, the six building principals, the elementary curriculum coordinator, the president of the local education association, and representatives of the Training Resources Center.

The Council is at the heart of the Harris County project, providing feedback and guidance from the teachers, parents, community agencies, the school board, and the College to insure that the project is meeting local needs. Among its responsibilities is control of the project's budget and expenditures.

Instead of the traditional five hours a week of formal class for five credit hours, the project in Harris County is competency-based. The resident professor meets with teachers for approximately one-and-a-half hours a week in formal classroom settings to introduce concepts. These classes are held in the schools of the county during the teachers' required 40-hour week. When possible, teachers in one school are grouped together in classes that meet in their school. The other contact time between the resident professor and the teacher is provided by the professor's working directly in the teacher's classroom, which enables the training to take place in a laboratory situation. It also allows the resident professor to do in-class observation, identify weaknesses, work with the teacher to identify a needed competency, give instruction in acquiring it, demonstrate it in the classroom, evaluate the teacher's mastery of it, and give graduate credit for its mastery. In effect, the process enables the College and the resident professor to demonstrate individualized diagnostic-prescriptive teaching in the graduate program and provide a model for the teacher.

Approximately 75% of the teachers in the county are involved each quarter in the Teacher Corps program. All tuition and fees are paid by the project in order to give each teacher an opportunity to participate and provide an incentive for all teachers. Additionally all training materials needed to develop identified competencies are provided by the Training Resources Center through the establishment of a professional library.

The participants can complete a master's degree within two years of the initiation of the project, provided that all requirements are successfully met. This can be accomplished by the teacher's taking 5 hours each quarter for each of two school years and 15 hours for each of two summers. The probability of being able to complete this type of program is improved because teachers do not have long class sessions to attend and they earn credit for activities actually planned and carried out in the public school classroom. It is the philosophy of this project that the teachers will earn a practitioner's degree rather than a scholar's degree.

As an additional component to the program, undergraduate classes are brought to Harris County to train community volunteers to work with low-income students either at home or in school. The training courses are provided free of charge to the participants if they spend an equivalent amount of time working in the classrooms of Harris County.

The Harris County Staff Development Plan (operated in connection with the State Department's Staff Development Plan) requires that all teachers receive a certain amount of training each year. This training is documented by a system whereby each teacher receives points for a variety of activities, either credit or noncredit. The Training Resources Center is responsible for keeping a record of all noncredit workshops, seminars, individualized work, and other activities such as trips to alternative schools, national workshops, and conferences. It is also responsible for granting continuing education units or graduate credits. Every teacher, therefore, participates in Center training activities through the Staff Development Plan.

The ideas that appear most likely to be transferable are:

- resident professors who work in public school classrooms to demonstrate skills and who follow the diagnostic-prescriptive model;
- a School Community Council that makes policy and budgetary decisions and on which all major community institutions are represented;
- the training of all school personnel (teachers, janitors, lunchroom workers, aides, and community volunteers) to effect improvements in the total school environment;
- the operation of a Training Resources Center that coordinates all resources (college, state department, local consultants, cooperative-educational-service agencies) to have an impact on the schools;
- recruitment, training, and use of community volunteers in public school classrooms and the training of parents to work more effectively with their children at home.

The things that should have been done differently are:

- The principals and local curriculum supervisors should have been involved more in creating the framework for training.
- There should have been a broader effort to use all resources at the beginning of the project.
- The recruitment of staff to operate the project should not have been so rushed.
- The school administration should not have oversold the program to teachers and in effect led some to believe that they would not have to work for their master's degree.
- The regular college faculty should have been more thoroughly oriented to the goals and operation of the project.
- The project should have been funded with more money (10% more would have greatly increased the project's effectiveness).

The factors that have facilitated the project are:

- an active interest by the Dean of Education in the field-based mode of operation;
- an enthusiastic interest in staff development on the part of the central administration;
- a project director with experience in field-based teacher education and a deep commitment to the philosophy of the project;
- a staff with an untypical philosophy toward graduate programs and improvement of schools;
- an active, outspoken, and interested School Community Council;
- an already established Staff Development Plan around which the program could be built.

The major factors that have inhibited the program are:

- lack of a clearly stated commitment by the board of education and the administration to effecting significant change in the structure of the schools, therefore making the training of teachers less meaningful when change is required to effectively demonstrate newly gained competencies;
- too much concern with the school being quiet, orderly, and traditional;
- lack of regular college resources for use in the field—professors have not been free to work in the project because of full loads on campus;
- no time for planning at the beginning of the project;
- the two-year duration of the project, which makes it seem transitory;
- serious problems with racism and lack of multicultural awareness, to the point that participants have been unwilling or unable to recognize underlying problems of the school and community;
- restrictions put on the graduate program because the state department of education does not have a competency-based option for master's-level certification;
- prospective employees who cannot and will not accept soft-money positions;
- major communication problems among staff, between staff and teachers, between staff and administrators, etc.;
- lack of defined role descriptions for all participants;
- not enough time to do all the work.

Chapter Five

Inservice Education in Lee County, Florida

Steven W. Cook

The Lee County School Board supports an inservice training program whose primary purpose is to improve instruction by improving and updating the skills, knowledge, and competence of all personnel involved in the educational process. Inservice education is recognized as a career-long process continually involving teachers in the assessment of training needs and the implementation of training activities.

During the 1974-75 school year increased emphasis was placed on the identification of building-level inservice needs and the structuring of programs to meet these local needs. This emphasis is part of the evolution of inservice education in Florida since 1968 when the Florida legislature created the Educational Improvement Expense program. The aim of this program is to provide local school districts with funds in addition to their state allocation for the regular instructional program. One part of this program is the development of a District Master Plan for Inservice Education. Before 1968, teachers could only renew teaching certificates by acquiring college credits. Under the new scheme each school district has become responsible for providing inservice activities. Teachers are awarded inservice points for satisfactory completion of these activities, and an accumulation of inservice points may be used to renew a teaching certificate. The Educational Improvement Expense package also enabled Lee County to acquire subject-area consultants or supervisors. An initial responsibility of these consultants was to assess the inservice training needs of subject-area teachers and to coordinate inservice activities in their subject area. Consequently inservice work in Lee County has been and still is conducted largely on a subject-area basis.

During the 1968-69 school year the Lee County School Board approved a plan to convert junior high schools to middle schools consisting of grades six, seven, and eight. Because a major emphasis of the middle school is team-teaching on an interdisciplinary basis, the conversion created a need for inservice activities outside the individual subject areas. Large numbers of teachers were involved in a series of workshops and credit courses to prepare them for the transition to the middle school. During the first years of middle schools there was a continued emphasis on providing teachers with training in middle school philosophy, teaching techniques, and the nature of the middle school learner.

As middle schools became firmly established, the state recognized a need for the certification of middle school teachers. As a result the state department of education created a plan giving each school district the responsibility for developing an inservice program to enable teachers to add middle school to a teaching certificate. The state expected the districts to develop performance-based plans for middle school certification. This meant that teachers were expected to demonstrate certain generic teaching skills that had been identified as necessary for successful middle school teaching. The state contracted with the University of Florida to develop individualized training materials that would help develop the generic skills. The University involved 17 Florida school districts in the project, which produced individualized performance-based modules that were then made available to all school districts in Florida. A part of each module requires teachers to work with fellow teachers in small groups called peer panels. Teachers on the panels assist each other in working on the module and observing skill development. The modules require the collection or production of evidence that indicates completion. The peer panels check for module completion and certify that a teacher is eligible for inservice points.

The Lee County middle school certification program began with the appointment of a task force composed of a teacher from each middle school. The task force was given the responsibility of examining all available resources and programs and recommending appropriate training. This group recommended that Lee County adopt the program of individualized modules developed at the University of Florida, along with building-level workshops. Each teacher was expected to earn 80 inservice points from the training activities that were available. The choice of skill areas and modules was left to each teacher or in some instances, to peer panels. Self-assessment instruments and low-inference materials were available for teacher use. A major emphasis of the middle school certification program was teacher supervision and direction.

In 1972 the Florida legislature enacted a new funding formula for education that allocated money to each district on the basis of a full-time-student equivalent. The full-time-student equivalent was assigned a monetary value ($745 in 1975), which was given to each district for each full-time-student equivalent. A stipulation of this funding procedure was that each district spend $5 per full-time-student equivalent for inservice education. In Lee County this amounts to about $80,000 yearly. A portion of this amount pays for teachers to attend conferences and workshops and visit schools. Another large part is spent on consultant fees for university personnel to conduct workshops and in some instances, credit courses.

During the 1973-74 school year several factors came into focus that seemed to indicate that Lee County had reached a plateau in inservice education. The Master Plan for Inservice Education had been in existence for six years, and teacher turnover had reached a low rate. Teachers had been exposed to numerous kinds of inservice activities designed to update subject-area skills and basic teaching skills. Training resources were becoming more expensive, and qualified consultants to provide updated training and ideas were difficult to obtain.

About this time the teacher center movement began in Florida. A teacher center seemed to be the next logical step, so along with five surrounding school districts Lee County formed the Southwest Florida Teacher Education Center. This collaborative endeavor was an attempt to draw all the various agencies involved in both preservice and inservice teacher education into a concentrated, focused effort. Three state universities are also partners in the Teacher Center. The state allocates resources to them that can only be spent for Teacher Center activities. The Teacher Center is guided by an advisory council, of which a majority of the members are classroom teachers. Also on the council are representatives of the universities, district-level staff, and building-level administrators. This arrangement creates a collaborative effort of three state universities, six local school districts, and classroom teachers working together as equal partners in teacher education.

One of the first objectives of the Teacher Center was to assess the inservice training needs of teachers in the six counties it serves. The Teacher Center adapted and developed a two-part questionnaire* asking teachers to give a self-assessment of their knowledge level and indicate their desire for training. There was a generic skills section to which all teachers responded and a set of questions for each subject area or level such as elementary, language arts, etc. Middle school teachers were also asked to respond to a set of questions related specifically to middle schools.

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* Additional information is available from the Southwest Florida Teacher Education Center, 3308 Canal Street, Ft. Myers, FL 33901.

The results were tabulated by subject area in a school, total school faculty, all subject-area teachers in a county, and all teachers in a county. For the first time there were data available that indicated the perceived knowledge level and training desires of both a given group of teachers within a school and the total school faculty. It became evident that there were unique training needs within a school and training needs that could best be met on a larger scale.

The results of the needs assessment were distributed to each teacher and school and were the basis for schools to begin planning for building-level inservice programs during the 1975-76 school year. At Caloosa Middle School, the Curriculum Council (see Appendix B) examined the results of the needs assessment along with data from a School Sentiment Index (see Appendix C) completed by students and a survey completed by parents. All the data indicated that although teachers had a rather high level of knowledge, there was a very definite need for additional training in understanding the social and emotional characteristics of the middle school learner. The Curriculum Council contacted the Teacher Center for advice and training resources. Two one-day workshops were scheduled in cooperation with another middle school that had identified the same need for training.

Another need identified by teachers at Caloosa Middle School was for training in helping students develop positive self-concepts and clarify values. A group of teachers decided that teachers first should be able to accurately analyze classroom interaction between themselves and students so that they could better understand how students are affected by teacher behavior. The Teacher Center was contacted, and it recommended a six-week course on interaction analysis. Teachers previewed the course, and 13 decided to participate. The Teacher Center provided all materials and the services of two substitute teachers one day a week for the six weeks. A substitute regularly relieved each teacher while the teacher worked through the course (the materials are programmed on an individual basis).

During the 1974-75 and 1975-76 school years Caloosa Middle School operated on a double-session schedule to alleviate overcrowding. Under this arrangement the student day was the minimum length, and there was not time for activities beyond the basic programs. Beginning with the 1976-77 school year, all middle schools began to operate on a single-session schedule. At Caloosa Middle School, the student day was lengthened and additional activities were incorporated into the schedule. When the change was announced, the sixth-grade teachers immediately began to develop a reading program for every sixth-grade student. They also expressed a desire for additional training in the teaching of reading. The Teacher Center recommended a six-week individualized course on teaching reading as decoding. Five teachers agreed to participate, and the Center supplied a substitute teacher every day for six weeks. The substitute relieved each teacher for one hour a day. This proved to be very effective because the inservice work took place during the school day when the teacher had time and students to work with (this particular course used small groups of students in microteaching situations).

With knowledge of additional time available beginning in the 1976-77 school year teachers began to examine a previously identified need of helping students develop positive self-concepts and clarify values. The student schedule was designed to allow one-half hour at the beginning of each school day for "home-based guidance"—a time when every faculty member would have a small group of students to work with on a personal basis. A small group of teachers was identified who possessed expertise and interest in building such a program. Through the Teacher Center they identified a person from another school district to serve as a consultant and advisor. Together they have developed inservice activities that they hope will motivate and prepare the entire faculty to be successful home-based guidance teachers. A Saturday workshop (for which teachers will receive a stipend) has been planned, and additional inservice activities will be scheduled throughout the school year. This inservice program began with teachers identifying a student need and realizing that they themselves needed additional training to meet this student need.

Inservice education in Lee County through teacher involvement and more accurate identification of training needs is at a point of being able to offer individualized help to schools and even individual teachers. The needs assessment conducted in 1975 has identified many areas for additional training that are directly related to student needs. The Teacher Center is able to supply the resources, and being a collaborative effort with the universities, it can also influence preservice education. There is now a very active involvement of teachers, administrators, school boards, and universities in planning, implementing, and evaluating inservice training. Ultimately such involvement can only benefit the student.

Chapter Six

Teachers Learn About Inquiry/Discovery Approaches*

John Elliott

The Ford Teaching Project was sponsored by the Ford Foundation and based at the Centre for Applied Research in Education at the University of East Anglia, United Kingdom, from 1973-75. It was an attempt to involve 40 teachers in a program of action research on the problems of implementing inquiry/discovery approaches in classrooms. The work of the Schools Council Humanities Project had made it clear that many of the problems of implementing discussion-based inquiry approaches were caused by the habitual and unconscious behavior patterns of teachers. For example, students' failure to discuss ideas could be explained in terms of teachers' tendencies to invite consensus, reinforce some views rather than others, and promote their own views. Only by becoming aware of these tendencies and reflecting about the theories implicit in them had teachers been able to modify their behavior. It had also become clear that many of the salient patterns referred to could be generalized across classrooms, subject areas, and schools. This observation suggested the possibility of teachers from diverse situations getting together to develop collaboratively a practical theory of inquiry/discovery teaching.

Organizational Framework

The 40 teachers who were invited to join the project came from 12 schools, including junior (ages 7-11), middle (ages 8-12 or 9-13), and secondary schools (ages 11 or 13 and up). They were supported by a central team of three: two full-time researchers and a secretary, who was also responsible for coordinating liaison between schools, and between schools and the central team. In addition, two district supervisors were designated to help support the work of teachers in their area on a part-time basis. The teachers were grouped in interdisciplinary school teams to discuss teaching problems and share ideas about methods of collecting data. Twice a term, arrangements were made for interschool meetings of two to four teams. The meetings, convened by the district supervisors, brought teachers together from the different kinds of schools involved. During the four terms that the project lasted, all the teachers were also brought together for three four-day residential conferences—at the beginning, halfway through, and at the end. These conferences provided a context for teachers to communicate across established educational boundaries. House (1974) has argued that lateral communication between teachers increases their rewards from peers and feeds their professional ambition. It therefore threatens hierarchical control over teachers' access to ideas and has political implications for increasing their professional autonomy. It was our view that lateral communication about classroom problems would increase teacher autonomy because it would support critical reflection about practice and thereby give teachers greater control over their own behavior.

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* This paper was adapted by Margo Johnson from a contribution to a symposium at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, April 19-23, 1976.

The Project's Design as Classroom Action Research

Those curriculum reformers in the United Kingdom who have expressed concern with the failure of the research, development, and diffusion model to secure implementation have tended to offer a problem-solving approach as a possible solution to fostering innovation at the classroom level. The essential features of the problem-solving approach are:

- its focus on practical problems defined by practitioners;
- collaboration between outsiders and practitioners, who in dialogue seek solutions to the practitioners' problems.

Initially these reflected the basic elements of our project design, with one exception—our design reflected a concern for generalization. We wanted teachers not only to monitor their own problems and develop practical hypotheses about how the problems arose and could be resolved, but also to explore the extent to which the problems and hypotheses could be generalized to other teachers' classrooms. We borrowed the term "action research" to describe this approach, and we came to prefer it, rather than "problem-solving," as a description of our design.

In early 1973 we started to recruit teachers who were experiencing some dissonance between their practice and their aspirations to implement inquiry/discovery approaches. However, it was difficult from our position as university researchers to get access to such teachers. Approaches had to be made down the hierarchy from district administrators to headteachers. Once approached by their district, headteachers tended to feel under some obligation to involve their staff. So by the time we met groups of "interested" teachers in schools, it was difficult to determine how the project had been communicated to them and whether or not their motives for joining stemmed from a genuine desire to reflect on their classroom problems.

The difficulties this presented for us became clear when we tried to explain the idea of collaborative action research to the 40 teachers who assembled for our first conference in spring 1973. Rather naively we assumed they were all anxious to "get cracking" on some systematic reflection on their classroom problems. We outlined the main purpose of the conference as the negotiation of research tasks, roles, procedures, and methods, and we produced a document to serve as the basis for discussion. The idea was to revise the document as a result of discussion and distribute it as an agreed contract between the teachers and us. A brief summary of the document follows:

A. Action-Research Tasks

1. to identify and diagnose in particular situations the problems that arise from attempts to implement inquiry/discovery approaches effectively, and to explore the extent to which problems and diagnostic hypotheses can be generalized;
2. to develop and test practical hypotheses about how the teaching problems identified might be resolved and to explore the extent to which they can be generally applied;
3. to clarify the aims, values, and principles implicit in inquiry/discovery approaches by reflecting about the values implicit in the problems identified.

B. Roles

Responsibility for the action-research tasks is to be shared between teachers and the central team working in dialogue. The central team will also take some responsibility for circulating the reports of school teams to other schools.

C. Methods of Data Collection

1. teacher field notes on classroom problems and teachers' reactions to them;
2. student diaries of lessons (students will have control over teachers' access to the diaries);
3. teacher-student discussions about classroom problems, using teacher field notes and student diaries as resources;
4. tape recordings of classroom events as checks of teachers' and students' retrospective accounts of lessons;
5. case studies of problems and strategies with a particular class of students during the last term, based on data collected by the methods and techniques outlined above.

D. Reporting Procedures

At the end of each term each coordinator of a school team will send the central team a report on team meetings within the school. The report will cite problems and hypotheses identified by the team.

Our attempt to negotiate teacher participation resulted in a rather reserved acceptance of our document in principle, with some suggested alterations. The teachers' general reaction was that they did not have time to carry out the tasks in the ways suggested. We realized that such skepticism is often well founded: On the whole, schools have not institutionalized support for reflective teaching; teachers often embark on innovations without the time and opportunity required to resolve the classroom problems that the innovations pose. Perhaps in this initial stage, we should have concentrated more on the selection of schools than on the recruitment of teachers. There is probably a strong correlation between the opportunities an institution allows for practical reflection and the ability of the teachers who work in it to be aware of gaps between aspirations and practice.

Many teachers at the conference felt not only that they did not have time to reflect about problems, but also that there was little point in doing so. They assumed they were already using inquiry/discovery teaching quite successfully. Later we learned that some teachers decided to get involved simply because they were already "doing inquiry/discovery" and involvement might bring rewards with a minimum of effort. Another, smaller group of teachers appeared to lack any commitment to inquiry/discovery approaches at all. We later discovered that these teachers had simply come at the "invitation" of their headteachers, to whom they were reluctant to say no.

During the first term of the project, it became clear that in the majority of cases, action research was simply not getting off the ground. Regular team meetings materialized in only two schools. A small minority of teachers took field notes, tape-recorded their lessons, and discussed classroom problems with students. The majority asked students to keep diaries, but they reported little evidence of any deeper thinking beyond "it was a bit boring" or "the lesson was all right." Feedback from schools was sparse. About two-thirds of the teachers appeared to believe they had few problems in implementing inquiry/discovery approaches successfully.

This early experience led to further developments in the project's design. Clearly our problem was how to motivate the majority of teachers to adopt a reflective stance on their practice. We therefore defined a second-order action-research role for ourselves—namely, developing practical hypotheses on how to initiate teachers into the activity of reflecting on their practice. It was in this context that the idea of the *self-monitoring teacher* began to crystallize as the key concept for the second-order research. Self-monitoring is the process by which people become aware of their situation and their own role as an agent in it. However, self-monitoring, although a necessary condition of awareness, is by no means sufficient. It expresses an objective attitude toward situation and self and indicates that certain subjective obstacles to awareness have been overcome, for example, those of bias and prejudice.

The concept of self-monitoring clarified for us what was involved in practical reflection. In its light one can make a clear distinction between the following:

- teachers who are adopting an objective stance on their practice, but require support in collecting and analyzing sufficient data to construct accurate accounts;
- teachers who are not adopting an objective stance, but inasmuch as they sense or feel their situation to be problematic, are ready to do so;
- teachers who are neither ready nor able to adopt an objective stance on their practice.

We now think that at the beginning of the project only 1 of the 40 teachers was self-monitoring to any significant extent. Another 12 probably had some genuine sense that their teaching was problematic. Two-thirds of the teachers fell into the third category.

Teachers' Theories of Teaching

The negotiation of tasks, roles, procedures, and methods was not the only aim of the first conference. We wanted the teachers to begin to explore typical problems. The discussions were marked by apparent communication difficulties. Teachers appeared to use different terms without being clear if they meant similar or different things by what they said. Teachers also appeared to use the same terms but disagree in the application of those terms. We felt that if teachers were going to share ideas, they would have to develop a common language for talking about classrooms. We listened to the recordings of the discussions and found that a number of terms tended to be used again and again in teachers' judgments about teaching situations. We invited teachers to discuss the meanings of these terms at team and regional meetings and to report back. We also went into schools and discussed the terms with teachers. We found that the terms were used to describe three main dimensions of instruction:

- formal/informal, which described the students' degree of intellectual dependence/independence on the teacher's authority position;
- structured/unstructured, which described the degree to which teachers were concerned with getting students to achieve preconceived knowledge outcomes;
- directed/guided/open-ended, which described methods by which the teachers tried to implement their aims.

Discussions and interviews with teachers about the meanings of terms also clarified apparent disagreements about the applications of terms. Teachers held different views about which terms were compatible. For example, some teachers associated an informal classroom with unstructured teaching and saw it as incompatible with a structured approach; for others, there was no such incompatibility. It became clear that the ways in which these meanings were associated in teachers' minds reflected their theories of inquiry/discovery teaching. The following associations and implicit theories were elicited:

1. Informal-structured-guided—A teacher can pursue preconceived knowledge outcomes by guiding students toward them without imposing constraints on students' ability to direct their own learning.
2. Informal-structured-open-ended—A teacher can pursue preconceived knowledge outcomes *and* foster and protect self-directed learning by concentrating solely on removing constraints and re-

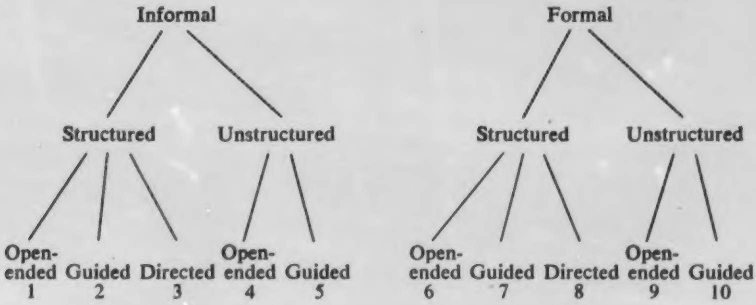
fraining from positive intervention in the learning process.

3. **Informal-unstructured-guided—A teacher can foster and protect self-directed learning *and* exercise positive influence on the learning process so long as this influence is not exerted in the direction of bringing about preconceived knowledge outcomes.**
4. **Informal-unstructured-open-ended—A teacher cannot foster and protect self-directed learning *and* pursue preconceived knowledge outcomes *or* exercise positive influence on learning processes. Strategies must be restricted to protecting self-direction on the part of the student.**
5. **Formal-structured-directed—A teacher fails to protect self-directed learning in pursuing preconceived knowledge outcomes in a way that is intended to make the student intellectually dependent on the teacher's authority position.**

During the second term of the project we asked teachers to identify which of these theories guided their own practice and to test the extent to which the theory accurately described it. For example, if teachers became aware that they were using a structured-guided approach, they would know that theory #1 was tending to guide their practice; they could then test the extent to which theory #1 was being realized by assessing whether their approach actually protected and fostered self-directed learning. If it did not, then they needed to generate new theory.

The list above was derived empirically and described a number of theories that actually informed our teachers' practice. However, it did not represent the full range of logically possible theories. By relating the categories in terms of all their logically possible combinations we eventually produced the typology of practical theories in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Typology of Practical Theories of Inquiry/Discovery Teaching



The categories generated from our discussions and interviews with teachers provided the basis for theory clarification, testing, and development in the project. They furnished a framework not only for discussions between teachers but also for dialogue between teachers and us; so many past attempts to produce theories of teaching have been practically fruitless because researchers have refused to take into account the perspectives of practitioners and to build theory from this standpoint.

Criteria for Testing Practical Theories of Inquiry/Discovery Teaching

Both at the initial conference and in later discussions and interviews with teachers it was clear that they characterized inquiry/discovery teaching as an attempt to protect and foster self-direction in the learning situation. However, "self-directed learning" is a rather abstract idea. We thought we could help teachers in the task of testing and developing theory if we could analyze the idea of self-directed learning into more concrete criteria.

We believed that self-directed learning should be conceived as a procedural aim—that its nature as a process criterion would be distorted if it were viewed as an end-product or object of mastery by students. We suggested that the aim of protecting and fostering self-directed learning could be analyzed into the following "freedoms" for students:

- freedom to identify and initiate their own problems for inquiry;
- freedom to express their own ideas and develop the ideas into hypotheses;
- freedom to test their ideas and hypotheses against relevant evidence;
- freedom to discuss ideas, that is, freedom to defend their own ideas in the light of rational criteria and to bring these criteria to bear on the ideas of others, including those of the teacher.

In order for students to exercise these freedoms, two sets of conditions are necessary. First, students must be free from external constraints on their ability to exercise the freedoms. Second, students must also possess the necessary intellectual capacities; for example, students may be free from constraints on the expression of certain ideas but be unable to express the ideas because they lack the necessary concepts.

Using the four freedoms and the two sets of conditions, we identified two clusters of principles that specify teachers' responsibilities for creating the conditions that are necessary to realize self-directed learning:

Negative Principles

- refrain from preventing students from identifying and initiating their own problems;
- refrain from preventing students from expressing their own ideas and hypotheses;
- refrain from restricting students' access to relevant evidence and preventing them from drawing their own conclusions about it;
- refrain from restricting students' access to discussion.

Positive Principles

- help students develop the capacity to identify and initiate their own problems;
- help students develop their own ideas into testable hypotheses;
- help students evaluate evidence in light of its relevance, truth, and sufficiency;
- help students learn how to discuss.

The negative principles provide criteria for assessing the extent to which the teaching approach *protects* self-directed learning and thereby maintains an informal learning context. The positive principles provide criteria for assessing the extent to which the capacity for self-direction is being *positively fostered* by the teacher within informal learning contexts.

About halfway through the second term, we circulated a document that included both the categories and theories that we had derived from discussions with teachers and the criteria for testing theories that we had analyzed from teachers' aims. We hoped that the document would provide some guidelines for self-monitoring in the classroom. However, we realized that it would only be useful to those teachers who had already begun to question their own practical theories. Fortunately, over the previous months we had begun to make some progress in this direction.

Triangulation as a Method of Initiating Self-Monitoring

During the first term of the project the need to develop strategies that would motivate the majority of our teachers to self-monitor their practice became apparent. We finally decided to use triangulation. Triangulation involves gathering accounts of a teaching situation from three quite different points of view, namely, those of teachers, students, and participant-observers. Each point of the triangle stands in a unique position with respect to access to relevant data about a teaching situation: Teachers, via introspection, have the best access to their own intentions and aims in the situation; students are in the best position to explain how teachers' actions influence the way they respond in the situation; participant-observers can best collect data about the observable features of the interaction between teachers and students.

We initiated a triangulation procedure in some teachers' classrooms and then circulated some full sets of data gathered in this way to all the other teachers in the project. Realizing that triangulation can be a threatening process, we selected only those teachers whom we believed to be ready to self-monitor their practice in some depth. We hoped that they would also be prepared to let other teachers have access to the data gathered in the process.

Because the teachers we selected had not been successful in eliciting honest feedback from students, we took the initiative in collecting accounts as participant-observers. This fact determined the techniques we used. Most often, we had a post-lesson interview with the teacher before interviewing the students (interviews were recorded on tape). This procedure enabled us to identify the kinds of data we needed to collect from students if the teacher was to have an opportunity to compare two accounts of the same event. It also enabled us to identify discrepancies between the teacher's account and our own, which then provided further criteria for eliciting relevant information from students.

The danger of interviewing the teacher first is that it leads to an overstructured interview with the students. There is also a danger that the participant-observer will overstructure the interview with the teacher. To avoid these dangers, we tried to work from the teacher's or students' own judgments about which features of the lesson were significant, introducing our own agenda when it matched theirs or was a natural development of it.

We also exercised the initiative in negotiating the teacher's access to student accounts. We interviewed students (in groups) only with the teacher's permission, and we made it clear that teacher access to the students' accounts would have to be negotiated with the students. As participant-observers, we had a significant role to play in creating conditions of trust between teachers and students. Students generally feared their teacher's reaction. We found that when teachers were able to conform to the conditions of access negotiated with students through us, and when they demonstrated an open attitude toward students' comments, they were increasingly able to collect their own accounts without our help. As the project progressed, we found that many of our teachers began to initiate triangulation procedures for themselves.

As well as observing, and in the initial stages interviewing, we recorded lessons. If the classroom was highly centralized, we used tape recordings. If the classroom was decentralized, we adopted a tape-slide technique. The teacher wore a microphone that picked up interchanges with students as he or she moved around the classroom, and we took photographs (pulsed onto the tape) that helped to place the interchanges in a visual context. Our recordings were used both in interview situations and by teachers when comparing accounts. In post-lesson interviews with teachers we sometimes adopted the device of playing the tape recording and allowing them to stop it and comment when they wanted to. It helped them to reconstruct classroom events and gave them more than memory to go on. We also found this approach useful in interviews with students.

Teachers frequently cited the collection of student data as the part of the process that aroused the greatest anxiety for them. This anxiety was carried into local interschool meetings. Those who had been involved in the triangulation studies discussed their experience with those who were not involved. Following is an episode from one such discussion:

District Supervisor: Do children feel they are being inspected in any way?

Secondary Teacher (A): No, I don't think so—they will often open up with them.

Primary Teacher (B): Pupils will open up with strangers who are just inquiring whereas they know the teachers are trying to find out what they know and therefore they try to give the "correct" response.

Secondary Teacher (A): . . . all that he [John Elliott] got from them was all criticism of the lessons.

Secondary Teacher (C): This attempt to get frankness can obtain complete nonsense from the children and often means that later a more authoritarian approach has to be adopted with them.

Secondary Teacher (D): I feel that this can cause trouble.

Secondary Teacher (E): The children can in fact give false information. Children do not talk frankly.

Secondary Teacher (C): Possibly children may like the idea that talking to the project team reflects an unfavorable image. To what extent do children realize the uniqueness of John Elliott's position [as an outsider coming in to interview]?

We only attended the interschool meetings on request because we felt that our absence would allow teachers to criticize our role more freely.

With the permission of the teachers and headteachers involved, some of the early triangulation studies were circulated to other teachers in the project. The studies also provided the basis for discussion at our interim conference at the end of the second term. At this conference they were used as data for testing the practical theories of the teachers studied.

The circulation of triangulation data around schools, discussions between teachers at local interschool meetings, and the experience of the interim conference began to take effect during the third term. Many teachers began to feel freer to look at and share their own classroom problems once others had demonstrated a willingness to do so. We discovered the crucial role that local interschool meetings and central conferences played in this respect. With two notable exceptions, school-based teams collapsed as a basis for sharing ideas and classroom data. This was partly because of lack of institutional support and partly because of the fact that in secondary schools, feelings of interdepartmental competition prevented the members of the interdisciplinary teams from exposing their teaching to each other. Teachers felt more able to share their classroom data with teachers from other schools. With the collapse of school-based teams the local meetings became the main setting for sharing ideas and experiences for the majority of the 30 teachers who by this time remained attached to the project.

During the third term, about 24 teachers were actively engaged in studying their own teaching in some form. Only about 6 adopted the full-blown triangulation method, but the others began to use some of the methods suggested at the first conference. Some recorded lessons or parts of them regularly, others kept field notes, and there was an increase in the general effort to obtain honest feedback from students.

In general, teachers tended to find their own level of research activity. They adopted methods that produced illuminating but not overwhelming data. They worked gradually from the least to the most threatening. Our observations of this process suggested that triangulation should appropriately come at the end of attempts to develop self-monitoring potential with teachers who are largely unreflective on their practice. We would in retrospect suggest that teachers need to work through the following sequence of activities:

1. listening or viewing recordings of their teaching situation;
2. listening or viewing recordings and then systematically trying to note salient patterns in their classroom behavior;
3. #2 plus dialogue with a participant-observer;
4. #3 plus dialogue with students about pedagogic values;
5. triangulation controlled by a participant-observer;
6. triangulation controlled by the teacher.

At the end of this process, teachers should be able to act as participant-observers in each other's classrooms. Indeed, during the second half of the project we found an increasing number of teachers able to do this productively. Their main problem, again, was gaining opportunities in their schools to dc this.

Developing Hypotheses from Classroom Data

The data collected by triangulation and other methods enabled teachers, in dialogue with us as participant-observers, to clarify and test the theories implicit in their practice. As a result some teachers generated new theories.

Following is an illustration of how one teacher used triangulation data:

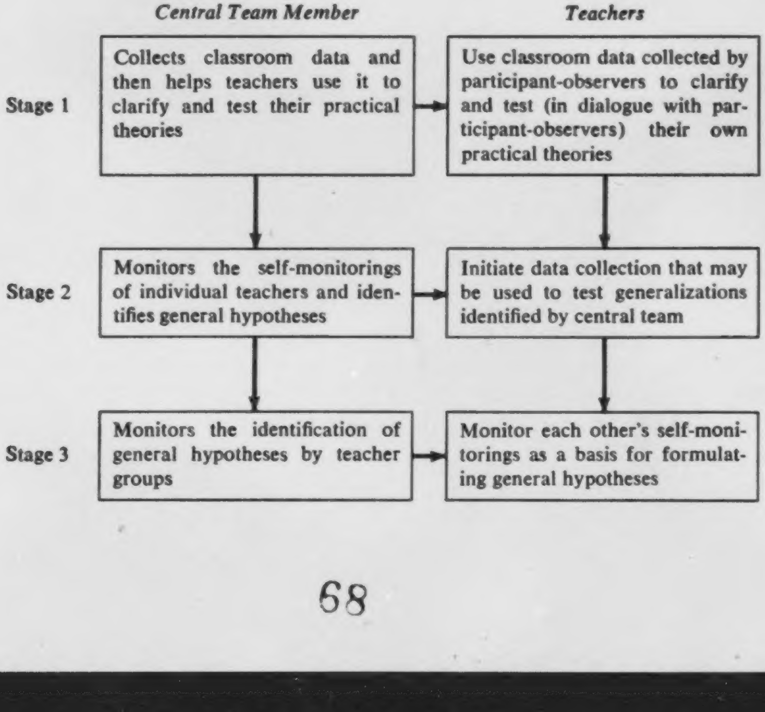
> The students argued that the teacher imposed constraints on their freedom to express their own ideas. On their own initiative they cited the behavior, "Do you all agree with that?" as a way in which the teacher imposed constraints by indicating the idea he wanted expressed. The participant-observer noted the teacher behaviors that appeared to indicate the outcomes desired and student responses to these behaviors. He noted the "Do you all agree?" behavior and students' responses to it. His observations were supported by the recording. The teacher also accepted that he said "Do you all agree with that?" frequently and described the intention behind it as "asking for assent." Gradually the normative implications of his practice began to dawn on him. The data convinced him that in spite of his professed aspirations to implement inquiry/discovery approaches, his teaching was in fact formal-structured-directed and his behaviors deliberately fostered his students' dependence on his authority position. Having clarified and tested the theory implicit in his practice in this way, he later dramatically switched

> to an unstructured-open-ended approach that he hoped would protect the self-directed learning of his students. His conscious switch to a new teaching approach reflected the development of a new theory, the applicability of which would require further self-monitoring.

From triangulation and other classroom data we began to identify practical theories that not only applied in individual instances but also appeared to have a more general applicability. By formulating them as "general hypotheses" and then circulating them to all teachers, we hoped they would provide a focus for self-monitoring activity. In exploring the applicability of the hypotheses to their particular situation teachers would necessarily have to clarify and test their own practical theories. We realized there was a danger that teachers would not test the hypotheses but simply accept or reject them in light of their perceived consistency or inconsistency with the teachers' own theories. However, this danger was somewhat reduced because the first batch of general hypotheses was not introduced until the end of the second term when an increasing number of teachers had already started to engage in some form of self-monitoring.

The rest of the general hypotheses were formulated toward the end of the final term of the project. They emerged partly as the product of

Figure 2. Shifts in Roles of Central Team and Teachers


Central Team Member
Teachers
Stage 1
Collects classroom data and then helps teachers use it to clarify and test their practical theories
Use classroom data collected by participant-observers to clarify and test (in dialogue with participant-observers) their own practical theories
Stage 2
Monitors the self-monitorings of individual teachers and identifies general hypotheses
Initiate data collection that may be used to test generalizations identified by central team
Stage 3
Monitors the identification of general hypotheses by teacher groups
Monitor each other's self-monitorings as a basis for formulating general hypotheses

further theory-testing with teachers and partly from autonomous studies by teachers. During the final term of the project several teachers embarked on case studies of work with a particular class over that term. Twelve studies were eventually written up. They contain evidence of teachers clarifying, testing, and generating theory. Our role as the central team was increasingly that of monitoring the self-monitorings of individual teachers with a view to identifying hypotheses that might have some generalizing power. But as these were introduced and tested by more and more individuals, we found that discussions at local interschool meetings began to focus on the generalizable features of life in classrooms. In other words teachers were increasingly able to monitor each other's studies and formulate their own general hypotheses. We estimated that about 12 teachers were in this position at the end of four terms.

The shifts in central team and teacher roles in theory development during the life of the project are crudely represented in Figure 2.

References

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Chapter Seven

Relating Inservice Education to Program Improvement: An Overview of the Portland Consortium Training Complex

Mary Gourley

The Portland Consortium Training Complex (P.C.T.C.) is a Teacher Corps project designed to:

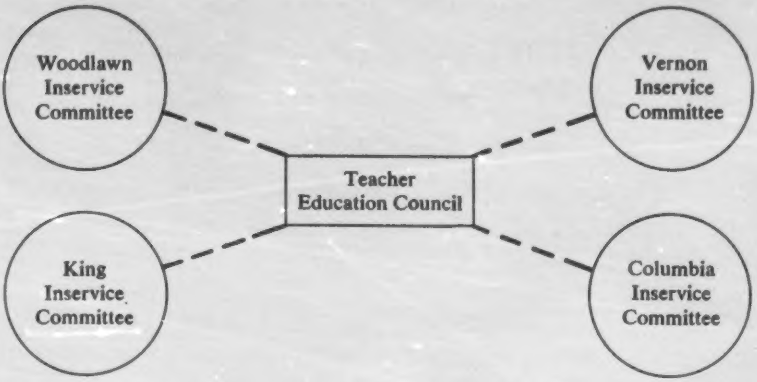
- establish a training complex in an urban school environment that is based on and responsive to the assessed needs of the students, teachers, teacher aides, auxiliary personnel, and community;
- provide a demonstration of exemplary field-based preservice and inservice training for teachers, interns, teacher aides, and auxiliary personnel;
- establish a project structure based on a collaborative decision-making model that provides for community and institutional parity in policymaking and equity in management decisions;
- develop replicable training components (including ones for community leaders, parents, and volunteers) for use by other schools in the Portland district, other local education agencies, local and state education associations, and institutions of higher education;
- evaluate the project's progress toward the attainment of the above goals and determine the effectiveness and generalizability of project components.

Members of the consortium that governs the training complex are the Portland Public Schools, Portland State University, and the Portland Association of Teachers.

Inservice Education and Program Improvement

The inservice component is related to program improvement in two ways. First, current inservice opportunities for participating teachers

Figure 3. Organizational Structure for Inservice Education


Woodlawn Inservice Committee
Vernon Inservice Committee
Teacher Education Council
King Inservice Committee
Columbia Inservice Committee

are based on teachers' perceived needs. (A survey instrument for helping identify these needs appears in Appendix D.) Each school within the P.C.T.C. has a School Inservice Committee. Technical assistance is provided by project staff. The function of the Committee is to facilitate needs assessment activities for this strand of the inservice program and to provide a vehicle for involving teachers in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the training.

The project also has a Teacher Education Council, which has responsibility for the coordination of all inservice activities in the project schools. Membership of both these groups includes a heavy concentration of classroom teachers. All but 7 of the 29 members of the School Inservice Committees are teachers, other members being building administrators and the P.C.T.C. Inservice Coordinator. Therefore, those people closest to the students and the day-to-day operation of the schools have a major responsibility for designing their own training, thereby providing the opportunity for that training to be directly related to program improvement within project schools.

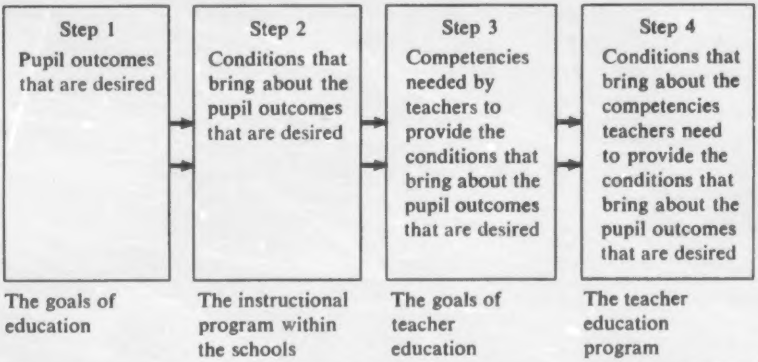
The inservice education organizational model is described in Figure 3. The structure allows for the continuous flow of information on inservice education among all interested persons. Inservice activities can be planned and implemented based on need rather than university or district schedules.

The second way in which the inservice program is related to program improvement is that the Comfield Model (Shalock & Hale, 1968) provides for the development of an alternative, field-centered, competency-based teacher education program. The Comfield Model (see Figure 4) is based on the assessment of desired outcomes for the specific student population and the assessment of the instructional programs within the P.C.T.C. schools.

The long-range goal of identifying teacher competencies through a process of (a) identifying and validating student goal statements (student outcomes), (b) assessing students and identifying student needs, and (c) identifying and validating the conditions necessary to meet priority student needs, was begun in the first project year. The initial steps in the process are being implemented through the collaboration of community, school district, and university participants. The model provides for the identified teaching competencies to become the basis of a teacher needs assessment that will eventually lead to a program of individually prescribed training for each instructional staff member to meet actual needs of the specific student population, thereby directly effecting program improvement.

In summary, the inservice component of the P.C.T.C. has two distinct but interrelated strands. As data emerge from the processes described by the Comfield Model, these become an additional source of information for the School Inservice Committees and Teacher Education Council.

Figure 4. Comfield Model for Program Development*


Step 1
Pupil outcomes that are desired
Step 2
Conditions that bring about the pupil outcomes that are desired
Step 3
Competencies needed by teachers to provide the conditions that bring about the pupil outcomes that are desired
Step 4
Conditions that bring about the competencies teachers need to provide the conditions that bring about the pupil outcomes that are desired
The goals of education
The instructional program within the schools
The goals of teacher education
The teacher education program

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*From *A Competency-Based, Field-Centered, Systems Approach to Elementary Teacher Education* (Vol. 1), Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1968. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 026 305)

It is a long-range goal of the P.C.T.C. to have the two strands eventually merge as data produced by both are brought together in the development of an alternative individual teacher education program tied to specific changes in school programs to meet specific student needs. A work-flow chart for the developmental model appears in Appendix E.

Constraints on Effective Inservice Education

There have been several constraints on effective inservice education within the Training Complex. First is what might be called conventional wisdom. The school district, the university, the teacher association, the community, and Teacher Corps each have built-in rules, regulations, and expectations that collectively put constraints on effective inservice activities. An example is the conventional term/credit/course pattern, which is not the unique province of the university. There is a need for creative thinking and openness to change.

A second constraint is the limited availability of personnel with time and flexible schedules to work in classrooms. Current role definitions within our organizational structures do not provide for flexible inservice education in classrooms. There is a need for new roles based on functions in inservice education.

Methods of providing release time for inservice education are a third constraint. The traditional after-school, evening, and weekend pattern is still the prevailing option. We need to examine the concept of "a day's work for a day's pay" and the need for continued professional growth for all personnel. Institutions must recognize their responsibility for providing optional patterns for the organization of inservice education.

Still another constraint is present methods of providing incentives for inservice education. Teachers are rewarded for overcoming hurdles that may be related but are largely external to their classroom assignments. Curriculum development activities need to be recognized as forms of inservice education, and appropriate incentives must be provided.

Finally, the lack of adequate incentives for field work by university personnel is constraining. The university traditionally does not reward field work to the same degree that it rewards on-campus teaching and research. The university needs to recognize district inservice needs and provide for more effective ways of meeting those needs, including incentives for those working "off campus."

References

Shalock, H. D., & Hale, J. R. (Eds.). *A competency-based, field-centered, systems approach to elementary teacher education (Vol. 1).* Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1968. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 026 305)

Chapter Eight

The Teacher-Designed Inservice Education Project of Western Washington State College Teacher Corps

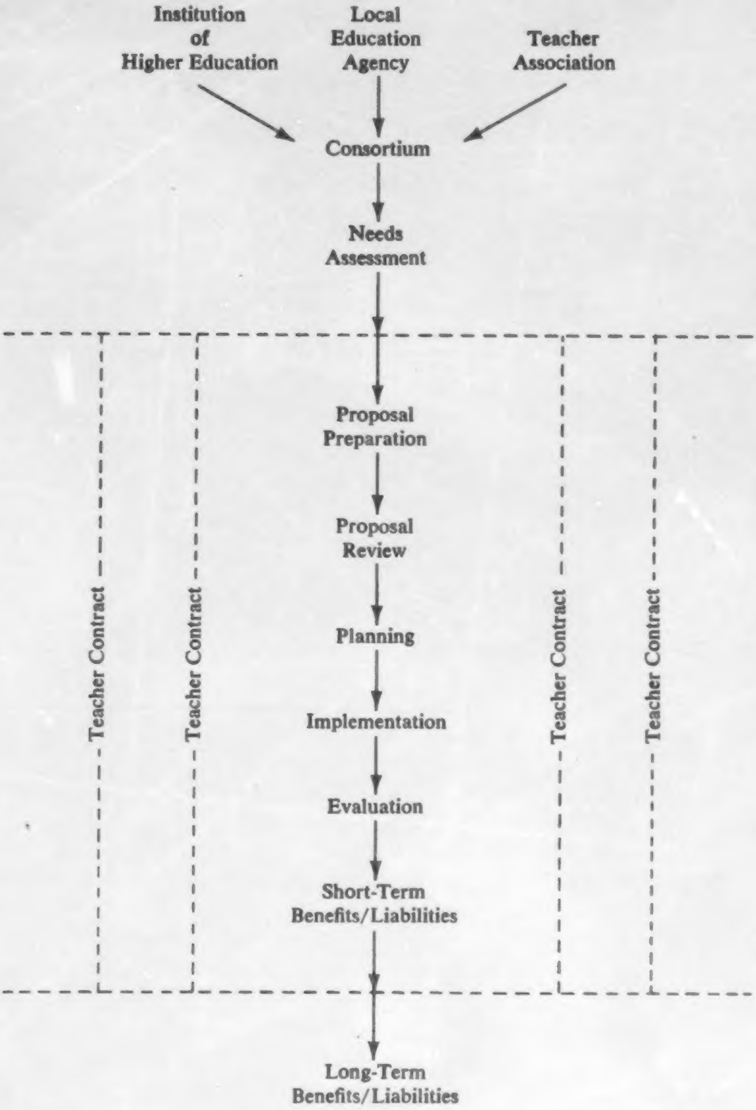
Herbert Hite, Patrick McIntyre, and Nancy Hildebrand

The focus of the Western Washington State College Teacher Corps inservice education project is on teachers designing their own professional development program. Essentially the project has these components:

1. A local education agency and the teachers in a single school building agree to undertake a school improvement program with the help of the College faculty.
2. The local education agency pays for the enrollment of each teacher in special graduate courses arranged by the College. Individuals may enroll for additional credits at their own expense.
3. Teachers initiate a needs assessment to identify critical problems of learners in their school. College faculty assist in this needs assessment.
4. After indicating priorities among critical needs, individuals and small groups of teachers negotiate "contracts" with College faculty members. The contracts specify study and practice by the teachers that will lead to the resolution of some critical need of students.
5. Three persons sign off on the contracts—the principal, a College faculty member, and a representative of the teacher organization.
6. The credits paid for by the local education agency entitle the teachers to the consultant services of College faculty to assist them in fulfilling their contracts.

The project is governed by a consortium in which the institution of higher education, the local education agency, and the teacher organization participate on a parity basis (see Appendix F). The consortium will be sanctioned by the Office of the State Superintendent for Public Instruction, and it can be empowered to grant permanent certification to teachers.

Figure 5. Design Framework for Western Washington State College Teacher Corps Teacher-Designed Inservice Education Model


Institution of Higher Education
Local Education Agency
Teacher Association
Consortium
Needs Assessment
Proposal Preparation
Proposal Review
Planning
Implementation
Evaluation
Short-Term Benefits/Liabilities
Long-Term Benefits/Liabilities
Teacher Contract
Teacher Contract
Teacher Contract
Teacher Contract

The implementation of the project takes place in participating schools in three stages: needs assessment, educational change, and evaluation. Each of these stages is formally acknowledged through one of three courses that were designed by the College staff and have been accepted as part of the regular College courses leading to certain Master of Education degrees (see Appendix G). A unique aspect of the courses is that they are restricted to teachers employed in schools that are part of the inservice education project.

Interns support the inservice education project as members of teams working on specific contracts. The field paper required for the master's degree in the internship program must implement the school's inservice program.

The delivery system for the inservice education project is the individual or group contract negotiated by the teacher or teachers with the consortium (see Appendix H). The contracts are tied to persistent and significant local problems of instruction that are identified in the needs assessment phase of program development. In this way inservice education is directly related to student needs and goals. A representative of each of the three consortium partners signs off on each teacher's or each group's contract.

The evaluation of the model is concerned with the improvement in instruction as specified in the contract. The evaluation is not limited to student effects, however; it also examines the costs, benefits, and liabilities of the model for each of the participating agencies and institutions. It is anticipated that each contract will have some short-term effects that will tend to focus on individuals (students and teachers) and that the many contracts in a particular school will have some long-term effects that will tend to focus on the consortium. Figure 5 diagrams these outcomes in relation to the inservice education model.

The development of the inservice education model and the related cost-benefit studies are a continuing endeavor. Some changes in the format of the model may develop, but in the staff's opinion, the consortium, teacher contract, and cost-benefit study will remain significant components. (Appendix I represents the present thinking of the Western Washington State College Teacher Corps staff on the cost-benefit analysis of the model.)

Chapter Nine

The Community Development Center: A New Perspective on Meeting Program, Staff, and Community Needs

Conrad Powell and Larry Winecoff

An approach that shows promise in helping schools, communities, and colleges of education share existing expertise and resources is the Community Development Center. The Center combines many characteristics of community schools, teaching centers, training complexes, and other forms of field-based, community-based education:

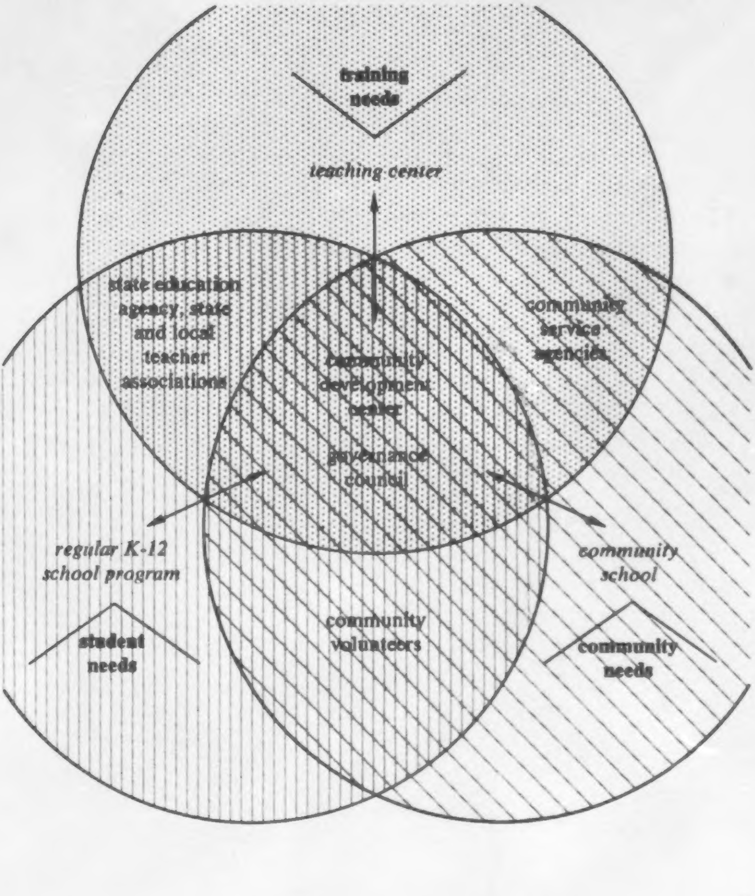
- It is housed in a public school or similar facility.
- Governance and responsibility are shared through a board or council made up of the cooperating agencies, institutions, and community members.
- It is staffed by professional personnel.
- It is designed to allow flexibility in operations to respond to immediate school, training, and community needs.
- It emphasizes some form of competency-based teacher education or performance evaluation.
- It involves community volunteers in the total program.
- It offers activities for all ages—day and night, year round.
- It is community based and service oriented.

The model presented in this paper is currently being developed through a University of South Carolina Teacher Corps project in Everett Community School in Winnsboro. Figure 6 illustrates the interrelationships of the major components of the Community Development Center.

Goals and Governance

The Community Development Center has established three broad goals:

Figure 6. Community Development Center Conceptual Model


training needs
teaching center
state education agency, state and local teacher associations
community development center
governance council
community service agencies
regular K-12 school program
student needs
community volunteers
community school
community needs

- to improve, enrich, and enhance the regular (K-12) school program;
- to provide career exploration and improved preservice and inservice training for school administrators, teachers, aides, paraprofessionals, volunteers, and personnel from a variety of community-service agencies and associations such as health, welfare, recreation, law enforcement, youth services, aging, ministerial, business, and local government;
- to provide a process through which community residents can identify and solve local problems and offer academic, cultural, vocational, avocational, social, health, and recreational programs and services to all citizens of all ages.

A firm commitment has been made to the goals of the Center by the school board (policy), the higher education institution (formal agreement), and many of the cooperating agencies (agreements and resolutions).

A Governance Council has been appointed to provide direction for the Center, maintain open communication with all groups and persons affected by the Center (e.g., professional organizations, parents, the state department of education, the university, the school board, and community service agencies), assist in providing organizational and evaluative procedures for the Center, and regularly review the operation of the Center as a form of quality control. The Governance Council is made up of the building principal (chairperson), the college site coordinator, representative teachers from the teacher association and school site, college faculty representatives, parent representatives, state department of education representatives, and representatives of community-service agencies.

Program

The Center's three goals indicate program emphases in preservice and inservice training of teachers, administrators, and related personnel; curriculum development and renewal; and community involvement and development.

Preservice Teacher Training

The preservice component is divided into four phases. Table 4 explains the nature of these phases.

Table 4. Preservice Training Phases

Student Variables	*Phases*			
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*
Student time on site	3-15 hours per semester	4-6 hours per week	Full-time one or two semesters	Full-time one semester
Student role in classroom	Systematic observer of student and teacher behavior	Systematic observer; case studies analyst; tutor; producer of materials; teacher aide	Student teacher; tutor; developer of materials; small-group instructor (microteaching); assistant teacher	Intern teacher
Student qualifications	Interest in teaching or related field	Declared education major; completion of or enrollment in a basic course in education	Advanced undergraduate status	Teaching certificate
Approximate student hours completed (total academic credit)	0-60 hours	50-90 hours	75-100 hours	Bachelor's degree
Program focus	Introduction and orientation; attitudinal development	Analysis and development of generic skills, knowledge, and attitudes	Development of specific skills, knowledge, and attitudes	Supervised practice and validation of competencies

Table 4 reflects a career-ladder approach to the preservice preparation of teachers. The candidate begins by exploring teaching and related professions through seminars, discussions, and presentations by practicing professionals. He or she also visits day-care and preschool centers, elementary and secondary schools, vocational and technical centers, and related agencies and institutions such as the state education association, the state department of education, and social service organizations. Phase 2 moves the candidate into the classroom and gradually prepares him or her to be a qualified paraprofessional (certified by the institution of higher education). Paraprofessionals already employed in the district and parent volunteers participate in on-site training related to the development of the candidate's skills, attitudes, and knowledge. In Phase 3, students spend either one or two full semesters on site and develop more specific skills, attitudes, and knowledge. Again, paraprofessionals and volunteers in the district participate in the training. Phase 4 is a one-semester internship as a certified teacher. Candidates validate specified competencies and receive a competency certificate awarded jointly by the institution of higher education and the school district.

Experienced Teacher and Staff Training (Inservice)

Experienced teachers, aides, paraprofessionals, and agency personnel can take on-site courses leading to advanced degrees or certification credit. In addition, inservice activities are provided based on diagnosed needs.

Training occurs in three phases. Phase 1 is diagnosis. Participating staff go through planned diagnostic procedures, including observation by Center staff and self-diagnosis, to assess their competencies and weaknesses. Results of diagnostic procedures form the basis for future inservice activities.

Phase 2 is prescription. Prescriptions are written in the form of self-improvement contracts by individual staff members. Activities include courses, workshops, videotape analysis, demonstration lessons, visitations, self- or group-paced module completion, and others. Staff can be freed by interns for parts of the school day to allow time for inservice activities. The activities are conducted by Center staff, including experienced teachers and agency professionals who have demonstrated competency in the area in which training is being conducted.

Phase 3 is validation of competencies. Once individuals have gone through training for a particular competency, their next step is to demonstrate attainment of the competency, either in person to members of the training team or on videotape for later analysis and validation. Competencies are categorized into course hours, continuing education units, or state department inservice hours; validation of competencies can thus be used for degree credit or upper-increment pay increases.

Curriculum Development

The curriculum development component consists of a systematic approach to the improvement of curriculum and instructional procedures.

Major steps include:

- problem identification by persons in the district who are responsible for program development (e.g., assistant superintendents, principals);
- problem clarification through needs assessment and analysis of both hard data (test scores, number of dropouts and referrals, etc.) and teacher, student, and parent perceptions;
- development of program goals (student and teacher) to be achieved (use of discrepancy analysis);
- identification of constraints that must be reduced and allocation of resources needed to achieve goals (district, college, and community);
- establishment of specific objectives to reach goals;
- development of a management system identifying specific tasks, persons responsible, completion dates, and resources;
- assessment of progress in successfully completing tasks and solving the problem—that is, reducing the discrepancy.

Community Involvement and Development

The Community Development Center provides a process for identifying and solving community problems through involvement. There are four major areas of emphasis in the component:

- full involvement of the community in improving the regular school program through visitations, assessment, analysis, and goal-setting;
- development of a well-organized, continuing volunteer program to provide specialized resource persons for enrichment; additional "hands" for individualizing, tutoring, and materials development; clerical and record-keeping assistance; and special programs such as physical education, music, art, and drama;
- interagency collaboration to mobilize community resources to solve community problems; agencies and programs may be housed full- or part-time in the school to offer day- (or night-) care, dental, health, welfare, employment, and other services;
- extended-school-day or extended-school-year programs such as recreation, adult education, senior citizen meals and activities, vocational training, and hobby and special-interest classes (ceramics, cake-decorating, sewing, typing, cooking, karate, slimnastics) as well as concerts, plays, square dances, and other cultural and social events.

Staffing Considerations

For the Institution of Higher Education

- faculty-load equivalents for personnel assigned to the Center, in-

cluding the coordinator of evaluation and research, site coordinators, supervisory faculty, and coordinator of the Center;
- allocation of materials, supplies, and equipment for training;
- allocation of graduate assistantships.

For the School District
- amount of released time for staff training that is feasible and/or required (some of the time might come from an intern-student teacher team);
- allocation of staff for Center coordination (including the coordination of evaluation and research);
- allocation of materials, supplies, and equipment for training and curriculum revision;
- allocation of time for building principals to assume leadership in curriculum development activities (some of the time might come from administrative interns).

For the Community
- amount of staff time community agencies are willing to allocate to the Center;
- allocation of materials and supplies for support of the Center;
- degree to which agencies are willing to share in the advertising of services, programs, activities, and resources;
- degree to which agencies are willing to cooperate in community problem-solving.

Evaluation

Both formative and summative evaluation procedures were designed for the Center before it became operational in order to ensure continual monitoring and revision of Center activities as required. In addition, a series of both basic and applied research projects is being initiated, primarily through coursework and doctoral dissertations. As part of their regular loads, one staff person in educational research at the University and one staff person from the school district are assigned to coordinate all evaluation and research activities, including design, instrument adoption and/or construction, data collection and analysis, and reporting. Areas for evaluation include:

- the degree to which the training program (preservice and inservice) conforms to design, that is, to specified competencies;
- effectiveness and efficiency of the training program relative to other programs;

- success in solving identified school-community problems;
- assessment of attitudes of all persons involved regarding Center procedures and Center effectiveness;
- student learning—public school students, preservice students, inservice students, and adult students.

Summary

Little has been done to relate the concept of community education to the training of professional education personnel and lay persons or to the improvement of educational opportunities for all students. Such a relationship is one more step in the search for broader collaboration among all persons involved in and being trained for schools and schooling. The Community Development Center provides a vehicle for integrating the advantages of community education, teaching centers, training complexes, and other form of field-based/community-based education into a full-service program that can enhance the quality of life for the entire community.

Chapter Ten

Inservice Education: An On-The-Job Approach Focusing on Curriculum and Instructional Development

David K. Wallace and Bruce Wideman

For the past two years, small clusters of teachers in four schools in Region Six of Detroit, Michigan, have pioneered an on-the-job project designed to try out several ideas that have been increasingly discussed and analyzed in the literature on inservice education. Through their participation these teachers, along with preservice education students, school building administrators, inservice personnel, and university faculty, have helped shape a program that treats preservice education and inservice education as distinct but related stages in professional development. Most important, these modern-day teacher-explorers have focused their attention on familiar territory—namely, their own schools and classrooms—and have begun mapping alternative ways to foster growth and learning for children and colleagues. As is true of many reconnaissance expeditions, the going has been slow and often bumpy.

What is described here is from the combined perspectives of the project coordinator, who is an instructor at Wayne State University in Detroit, and a classroom teacher in Detroit Region Six. The classroom teacher has participated in the project from the beginning and has contributed to the development of project activities and procedures within his own school setting. The project coordinator has had the unique opportunity to view the program as an administrator "outside" the various school settings and also as a preservice-inservice consultant "inside" one particular school building.

The outside view is important for a general description of major features and processes of the Preservice-Inservice Curriculum Consortium in which Wayne State University and Detroit Region Six participate.

What has happened inside, at the building level, gives substance and meaning to those features and processes. The intent is to examine core elements of the project and then take a brief look at the operation of the project within two school buildings.

A View from the Outside

Jackson (1971), writing about inservice education, describes two contrasting perspectives on helping teachers improve their work. One perspective, the "defect" point of view, rests on the assumption "that something is wrong with the way practicing teachers now operate and the purpose of inservice training is to set them straight—to repair their defects, so to speak" (p. 21). The other perspective, the "growth approach," assumes "that teaching is a complex and multifaceted activity about which there is more to know than can ever be known by any one person. From this point of view the motive for learning more about teaching is not to repair a personal inadequacy as a teacher, but to seek greater fulfillment as a practitioner of the art" (p. 26). The latter perspective, the growth approach, has been an implicit yet central element in our inservice efforts. The notion that professional development is a continuous, lifelong growth experience has glowed dimly but persistently, like "foxfire," in the background of each school's inservice program.

Operationally this approach has been kindled and fueled by the participation of teachers in decisions about the inservice activities to be carried on in each school setting. In an effort to overcome past practices, in which inservice education has been designed, planned, and conducted for teachers by persons in authority (Edelfelt & Lawrence, 1975), this program has been attempting to increase teachers' involvement in the planning and management of their own inservice activities, in their own schools. Based on assessments of needs and interests, teachers have been making collective and individual choices about the content and structure of their inservice activities. At times they have worked with each other as resource persons or provided materials and activities for school-level workshops.

The fact that teachers participate in the program for an extended time period, ranging from 10 weeks to an entire school year, gives them and the inservice support team time to develop the procedures, guidelines, and trust necessary for shared decision-making. The process requires patience and a willingness to work within a framework that encourages and accepts different professional needs and expectations. These are not qualities that we all come by easily.

Curriculum Development

Curriculum development has come to mean many things to many people. Curriculum development models and curriculum projects have grown so rapidly in recent years that the educational marketplace is seemingly alive with ideas, activities, and approaches for improving teaching and learning. Unfortunately most inservice efforts to improve teaching have not dealt "directly with helping teachers improve their skills in instruction or become more adept at planning and organizing curriculum" (Edelfelt & Lawrence, 1975, p. 14).

A major emphasis in this project has been for teachers to examine their curriculum and instructional programs and identify specific features they would like to improve or change. After this examination they work with inservice consultants on designing and organizing curriculum and instructional modifications for their classrooms. The goal is to develop small modules or units.

An important dimension of this approach has been its focus on substantive themes and contexts. For example, when teachers have worked on curriculum modifications designed to achieve literacy advancement in writing, speaking, and reading, they have been encouraged to develop learning activities that use concepts and skills from the disciplines. That is, students should be applying their writing, speaking, and reading skills *to* something.

The extent to which teachers have been successful in changing their curriculum in this way has varied from school to school and teacher to teacher. Some have planned, organized, and used curriculum modules, others have incorporated different activities and materials into their instruction, and still others have simply tried out certain ideas and methods such as questioning strategies and brainstorming techniques.

There has been little effort so far to examine the impact of curriculum changes on children. Some teachers have tested children to find out if they understand new concepts, but there has been no systematic comparative evaluation of new and old or different approaches to learning. This does not mean that teachers and inservice consultants have been lazy or uninterested in this dimension of curriculum development. Rather, when teachers engage in expanding their skills and understanding of curriculum development during the day, for one or two hours per week, it takes a long time to learn all aspects of curriculum-making and evaluation.

Collaboration

The notion of various institutions and individuals working together on common tasks has been important to the professional education of teachers for several years. A decade ago, leaders representing a broad spectrum of educational agencies examined the merits of collaboration in a publication entitled *Partnership in Teacher Education* (Smith, Olsen, Johnson, & Barbour, 1966). Even then, it was a concern that "no institution or agency can successfully go it alone in the education of teachers, either preservice or inservice" (p. 2). Today, with shrinking budgets and growing pressure for educational accountability, it seems more evident that schools, professional organizations, state departments of education, and community agencies need to work together. The emergence of consortia, networks, and various cooperative arrangements throughout the country demonstrates the growing opinion that past differences need to be set aside and common goals need to be pursued through cooperative efforts.

Wayne State University and the Detroit Public Schools have been leaders in establishing the spirit of collaboration in the Detroit area. The Team Internship Program, the Professional Year Program, the Training the Trainers of Teachers (Triple-T) Project, and recently the Detroit Center for Professional Growth and Development are some of the collaborative programs initiated by these two urban institutions.

From this tradition of collaboration, the Preservice-Inservice Curriculum Consortium was born. Certain key individuals from the Detroit Public Schools and Wayne State University who had been actively involved in the Triple-T Project's efforts to establish field-based programs through planning on the basis of parity, facilitated the development of a local network of individuals and institutions interested in trying out parity decision-making and curriculum and instructional development in local school settings with preservice and inservice teachers.

With an eye toward working in the mainstream of existing teacher education programs, this small cadre of "movers" adopted the strategy of infusion and focused their attention on Wayne State University's field-based undergraduate teacher education program, Interdisciplinary Teacher Education (I.T.E.). Professors and school personnel in the cadre, who had been working together in the I.T.E. program in Detroit Region Six for some time, saw the structure of I.T.E. as an opportunity to provide resources and support to teachers in schools where I.T.E. students were clustered, and to explore the merits of a coordinated preservice-inservice approach.

From the outset the project has operated on funds and resources contributed by each participating institution. The time spent by teachers, university professors, and inservice consultants in the project has been part of their regular institutional commitment. No special funds have been allocated to pay for school-level participation. Support from community agencies such as automobile and newspaper companies has been in the form of consultant help and visits by teachers and inservice staff to corporate facilities. Collaboration has been "grassroots" collaboration, with each participating institution providing resources and personnel.

First Steps

At the outset of the first year (1974-75) the university and school system "movers" in the I.T.E. program presented the broad concept of a preservice-inservice school-based program to principals and assistant principals of Region Six schools in which the I.T.E. program was operating, and to a few other principals who were recommended by the Region Six central administration. General goals and a tentative plan of action were discussed at the meeting. The plan called for identifying three or four schools in which clusters of teachers (three to eight per building) wanted to work on improving their curriculum through a school-based inservice program. They also needed to be interested in working with a preservice education student. Teachers' participation was to be voluntary, not required. It was suggested that administrators invite teachers who might be interested in working on an integrated approach in social studies (the focus shifted to all the discipline areas in the second year). Finally, it was recommended that each teacher make a commitment to participate for the entire school year, with the option to withdraw at any time.

Following the orientation meeting, the building administrators extended invitations to teachers in their schools. Three schools ultimately expressed an interest—two middle schools with clusters of four teachers each, and an elementary school with a cluster of three teachers. Later in the first year, and also during the second year, a few teachers withdrew from the project and several new teachers in each of the three buildings joined the project. A cluster of teachers in a fourth school joined the project in the second year.

It is not altogether clear why some teachers withdrew. In two or three cases, the teachers said they had been coerced to join and got involved only to please a department head or principal. Others indicated that the program failed to meet their needs. However, most of the teachers who entered the program have continued to participate because they feel it is worthwhile. Most have experienced frustration and confusion along with success and have directed their experiences toward improving the operation of the program in each school setting.

A View from the Inside

This inside view is from the perspectives of a classroom teacher working in a middle school and the project coordinator (a preservice-inservice consultant) working in an elementary school.

The School Settings

The two schools described here are essentially like most urban schools. The elementary school building is a large, two-story brick structure constructed several decades ago. The rooms are of moderate size with hardwood floors and high ceilings, and the walls are painted either a pale green or beige. Desks are arranged for the most part in rows to accommodate up to 36 students. There is limited space for storage and display of materials. The halls are long and lined with lockers. The middle school building is essentially like the elementary building except that it is smaller and somewhat newer. The elementary school has an enrollment of approximately 1,200 children, with 49 teachers on the faculty. About 350 students attend the middle school, and there are 14 teachers on the faculty. The school administration in each building includes a principal and an assistant principal.

From conversations during the first week of the program, it was revealed that:

- Inservice experiences for teachers in both schools were usually workshops and seminars held away from the school.
- Regularly scheduled curriculum days in the elementary school were usually devoted to planning and evaluating achievement objectives (schools in Detroit devise and evaluate achievement plans every year). Curriculum days in the middle school focused on some curriculum activities as well as achievement plans.
- There was little time or opportunity for teachers in either school to work individually or cooperatively on curriculum during the regular school schedule.
- Some teachers in the elementary school had supervised Wayne State University student teachers and I.T.E. students. Teachers in the middle school had had some experience working with student teachers but no experience with I.T.E. students.

The Organizational Structure

The number of participating teachers in the elementary school has expanded from three (the original cluster) to eleven, and the number in the middle school has expanded from four to eight. Within both school settings, the following structure for carrying on continuous inservice and preservice activities has been created:

> *The instructional team:* Undergraduate students who volunteer to participate in the program as assistant teachers are placed with classroom teachers who have volunteered to work on improving instruction in their classrooms. The assistant teachers and the teachers plan and teach together, basing some of their instruction on experimental plans developed with the service team.
>
> *The service team:* A university professor and a school system supervisor "live in" the school one full day every week following initial orientation meetings when teachers describe their needs and interests and formulate objectives for accomplishing the improvements they want to make.

The governance of the building-level inservice program is lodged in the collaborative structure of a weekly seminar in which the classroom teachers and the service team work together in planning and developing resources for inservice activities. Decisions regarding instructional team goals and objectives are made in three-way conferences (classroom teacher, assistant teacher, and university professor or school district consultant). The conferences also provide an opportunity for the service team to help assistant teachers analyze their teaching.

Reflections and Future Considerations

From the Perspective of a Classroom Teacher

Initially teachers who volunteered to participate in the Consortium had a general feeling of hesitation and apprehension. They distrusted the program somewhat, especially the I.T.E. preservice part because it seemed like another method to increase workload and control faculty, with the only benefit being some limited free time to meet with a few staff members. And in order to have this time, classrooms had to be entrusted to partially trained education students. Even though there was always the opportunity to leave the teacher seminars at any time to check on classrooms, there was a general uneasiness about being away. Furthermore, coping with another adult (the education student) in the classroom was often difficult. However, over time these concerns about the I.T.E. students gradually diminished. Continuing efforts to communicate and share classroom goals and professional and personal goals with education students resulted in considerable positive change in attitude.

Developing successful and effective working relationships with fellow teachers has also taken a long time. During the first year there was minimum cooperation among the four participating teachers. There was some sharing of curriculum ideas and review of curriculum materials, and much discussion about working together. However, most of the time the teachers worked separately with the I.T.E. students on curriculum and instructional activities in the classroom.

The four participating teachers were unable to work as a team partly because they were not grouped as a team within the regular organizational structure of the school. There was some grouping of students but usually between two participating teachers only. Furthermore, the narrow focus on the social studies curriculum seemed to limit the number of teachers participating in the program.

These problems were remedied the second year when the faculty was reorganized into interdisciplinary teams of math, English, social studies, and science teachers, thus enlarging the curriculum focus. With this new arrangement the preservice-inservice program was expanded to include two interdisciplinary teams. Each team defined its goals and objectives based on student needs and interests, and was encouraged to work cooperatively on curriculum units and modules. A curriculum workroom was established. In addition to the inservice seminar time during which the I.T.E. students were teaching in the classrooms, regular school inservice periods were devoted to curriculum development within the teams. Along with time, space, and organization, other factors influenced the team effort; when team members were able to resolve communication problems, focus on action ideas, identify common student needs, and compromise, curriculum units were ultimately developed and tried out.

The extent to which the factors described above enhanced or inhibited the curriculum development process is difficult to assess completely from the perspective of a classroom teacher in a middle school. But it does seem clear that most teachers in this school have a greater feeling of trust and confidence in working with each other and with I.T.E. students. More important, they share a renewed feeling of professional growth.

From the Perspective of a Preservice-Inservice Consultant

An initial discovery made in the elementary setting was that teachers had little experience working in the roles of "co-teacher" and "curriculum developer" and that it took a great deal of time to get comfortable in those roles. Teachers who had worked with student teachers in the past initially perceived their role to be an observer-critic rather than a co-teacher who plans and teaches cooperatively with another (assistant) teacher. Furthermore, they had never experienced leaving their classroom with an assistant teacher in charge for an extended time period in order to meet in an inservice seminar to work on curriculum development. Those teachers who had never worked with student teachers were confounded at times by the conflict between autonomous teaching (which they had done all their professional lives) and co-teaching. Most of the teachers seemed to be unsure about how to develop curriculum. On several occasions teachers expressed their concern about the lack of adequate preparation for working in those roles. Even with the creation of a handbook that included role descriptions and suggested expectations, teachers found that becoming effective co-teachers and curriculum developers was a difficult task. It has been recommended by several teachers that next year, before school begins, the Consortium conduct a workshop in which teachers can model and simulate skills necessary for co-teaching and curriculum development.

A factor that has emerged as crucial to the nurturing of growth for inservice teachers, preservice teachers, university faculty, and inservice consultants is the need for establishing and maintaining mechanisms for interpersonal communication. The seminars and three-way conferences have been helpful in this regard. But all participants, especially the instructional team, need to encourage interpersonal relations that are open and free. The assistant teachers and the classroom teachers must feel free to try out new ideas and activities and feel confident that the service team will give them nonthreatening and constructive feedback. Furthermore, there is a need for feedback evaluating the appropriateness and productiveness of what a person is doing in curriculum and instruction.

The two principles that seem to have been the most significant throughout these two years have been patience and a willingness to spend time. The daily "press" in this urban school, as in others, seems to sap time and energy. Working together only an hour or two per week seems too short a period of time to accomplish much. But because all of us have been patient and made the commitment to work in this kind of a program for a long time, we have been able to bring about small changes and are optimistic about the future.

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Chapter Eleven

The Curley School: An In-School Education Program

Simon Wittes and Laura Cooper

This is a story of many different groups of people—teachers, students, administrators, and university personnel. It is the story of a change process—change in organizational structure, teacher attitudes, administrative practices, and teaching-learning procedures—brought about through inservice collaboration between a public school and a university. The school is the Mary E. Curley Junior High School in Boston, and the university is the University of Massachusetts at Boston, more specifically the Institute for Learning and Teaching.

Mary E. Curley Junior High School

The Curley School in 1972 had a student population in grades seven to nine that was approximately one-third Spanish-speaking, one-third Black, and one-third white, all from working-class neighborhoods. The school had a history of violence, vandalism, fires, false fire alarms, and other forms of student tension and disruptions. Youngsters ran the corridors, threw bricks, chairs, and tables, and fought with each other, teachers, and administrators. Teachers ran after youngsters, herded them into classrooms, hid when possible, and complained incessantly about the intolerable conditions. Administrators reprimanded teachers and students, adjudicated conflicts, suspended students, interviewed parents, and called the police. There was little academic instruction. The principal reported:

> The building was always in constant movement. I mean we have had people wandering the corridors, we have had them cutting classes, and it was just very difficult to control because they would have so many teachers to see during the day that it really was difficult keeping up with them . . .

Low morale was reflected in high absenteeism and turnover among teachers and widespread feelings of impotence among faculty and administrators alike. As one administrator said:

> There was a kind of a—I have to use the word—hopelessness, there was nothing really to look forward to. I think the kids expressed it to us and the teachers—we just seem to be in a slough, not going very far or not going in the right direction.

The Institute for Learning and Teaching

The Institute for Learning and Teaching works with urban teachers, parents, school aides, and principals to improve the quality of education in the elementary and secondary schools from which many University of Massachusetts students come. It also works with University departments and faculty members interested in improving academic programs and services to students of the University of Massachusetts at Boston. The Institute advocates reforms directed at increased cross-cultural understanding, increased participation by teachers, parents, and students in making educational decisions, increased responsiveness of educational institutions to the needs of students, and increased equality of educational opportunity.

Once the Institute has received a request for assistance, a staff member spends many hours becoming familiar with the general needs of the school, assessing what type of a consultation or program would be appropriate to fill the request. The staff member then searches for the consultants, trainers, or programs that would best fit the needs of the school. He or she brings the potential outside resource to the attention of school personnel, and together they make a decision on the use of the consultant. The consultant may be affiliated with the Institute, the University, or another university, or the consultant may have no academic affiliation whatsoever. The major criterion in selection is the appropriateness of the match between the consultant and the school's needs. In this way, the Institute often acts as an intermediary or broker.

The Collaboration

The collaboration between the Curley School and the Institute began with a request from Curley School teachers for instruction in conversational Spanish; they wanted to learn how to say in Spanish, "Open your book," "Turn to page 11," "Go to the board," etc. Their request had gone unheeded by school system personnel for two years prior to their initial meeting with the Institute consultant.

The Institute consultant believed that conversational Spanish was not the most important requirement to bring order out of chaos and make academic learning the first order of business in the school. However, the teachers had identified conversational Spanish as *their* highest priority. They had a vital need to communicate with a significant segment of their student population. The Institute staff hoped that by responding to teachers' perceived needs, they could establish their credibility as outsiders and build their relationships with teachers. Then, teachers and Institute staff could jointly address some of the more fundamental organizational and learning problems in Curley School.

As a result, the Institute established a 15-week course in "Spanish for Effective Communication" that met at the school from 3:00 to 4:00 p.m. twice a week. One-half of the Curley School faculty enrolled, and 70% of them completed the course, for which they received three inservice education credits toward salary increases and promotions. The reward was insignificant compared to the time and energy the teachers invested in the course, held under very difficult conditions. This investment attested to the commitment of a group of teachers and was a critical indication that productive work with the Curley School was possible.

In 1972 the Curley School remained a troubled, frightening school. It became a riotous battleground in December of that year. One teacher reported:

> It got so bad towards the end that you were spending more time outside of your classroom dealing with problems than you were inside dealing with the kids you were supposed to be teaching, and it got to such a situation that you could no longer shut the door because the door would be broken down or you couldn't board up the window because someone would come flying through. So I think the faculty reached a point along with the administration where they just said this is it, something has got to change . . . that was the starting point when things got so bad that nothing could go on any longer, then I think everyone realized that things had to change. We had to get together and we had to work as a team.

Because the Institute had actually delivered the after-school Spanish course that teachers had requested, the teachers and the principal asked the Institute for assistance in reducing the violence and helping teachers teach. As a first step the Institute hired two junior high school teachers from another school as consultants to the small clusters of seventh- and eighth-grade teachers that had been asked to work as teams but had not yet done so. Despite interrupted meetings and teacher ambivalence about working with "outsiders," the consultants met whenever and wherever the teams (or even parts of the teams) would meet. This meant hurried meetings in the corridors, late Friday afternoon meetings, and even meetings at the consultants' homes. The consultants persisted, listening sympathetically (as perhaps only another teacher can) to the teachers' problems and offering suggestions for working as a team to attack discipline, scheduling, and specific learning problems.

This initial effort failed to create well-functioning, reorganized teams, but it did accomplish two very important objectives: First, some teachers began sharing their anger and banding together to insist on major school change in organization and security procedures; second, the Institute's consultants were no longer considered "outsiders" but were accepted by the teachers as credible resources who could be trusted to work *with* them.

Subsequently the Institute consultants became actively involved in helping the newly mobilized faculty senate in its efforts to work for change. The consultants helped by negotiating with the administrators a new decision-making process that involved teachers, by providing organizational and political assistance to the subcommittee on security needs, and by devising several models for successfully organizing a big staff and student body into small, manageable teams.

The consultants' overriding concern was to enable the teachers to achieve their own goals. The teachers' role in decision-making was highlighted by one teacher who said:

> Faculty representatives monitored the entire process of change to guard that the rights of the teachers and provisions of the union contract were respected in all cases. Many times faculty input determined the decisions made as to cluster size, location, team makeup (which was constructed on a voluntary basis so that no one felt railroaded), scheduling involvement of special services, team responsibility, and class makeup (heterogeneous or homogeneous). Perhaps the most important issue of all was the notion of team responsibility and autonomy in making policies for their own cluster. Teachers felt an increase in their role in deciding what happened and didn't happen to them.

After many subcommittee, senate, and entire faculty meetings, a cluster-team organization was agreed upon. Although teachers chose their cluster teams, many were worried about what working on a teaching team would be like. The Institute staff member and the school-based consultants combined resources to offer a practical training program for interested teachers. The five afternoon workshop sessions focused on decision-making, conflict resolution, problem-solving techniques, group-process skills, and team approaches to discipline problems. The teachers also had several opportunities to question other Boston area teachers who were team-teaching at the time.

By fall 1973 the planning and reorganization efforts had paid off. Changes in "discipline" and atmosphere were evident. During a recorded interview the principal reported:

> Kids are learning better, attendance of staff and students is definitely better, grades are up and arms (knives, guns, etc.) are way down. While it isn't heaven and the archangels, a drop of 80% in the number of suspensions is unbelievable.

Clearly, daily life was different for students:

> I think the biggest thing in the clusters was the creating of a situation where our pupils, with all the multiple problems some of them have, could feel secure. They have calmed down and now they enjoy it and they are really happy. There is not much hostility. I mean racial incidents are practically nonexistent, really. Really and truly, and I think that's what came out of all the teacher planning.

The dramatic changes in student experiences were mirrored by changes in the lives, attitudes, and morale of faculty members, who felt a new sense of potency as a result of the planning process. One teacher believed that this increased sense of potency was due to a change in power relationships:

> The biggest help in creating the clustering program was that teachers and the administrators finally talked on the same level. We finally got down to dealing with each other as human beings and no longer in certain roles . . . if any school wants to go ahead and change, it has to really say what is more important, my role as a teacher or my role as an administrator or the welfare of the students and the school as a whole. I mean that teachers . . . had to give up the role of "I am king of my castle" . . . and the administrators had to give up a lot. They had to give up the role of an authoritarian in a lot of ways; I think the student body has a lot more respect for the teachers and administrators this year because they see them communicating with each other as human beings.

In fall 1973 the Institute offered to continue assistance in new ways:

> When the Institute consultant asked teachers what their greatest needs were, they identified "reading" and "clustering" as priority areas. In response to these stated needs, several programs were started. In conjunction with the Boston School Department, and with the support of the District Associate Superintendent, a reading Task Force, composed of five experienced teachers, was formed, to be assisted by Curley's Reading Teacher, and further helped by an Institute consultant four half days per week. The administrators, the Staff Development person for Curley and the various elements of the program were to cooperate in the ultimate aim of improving the quality of the reading of Curley students. With the incorporation of clustering, tracking was dropped, and the groups were to be heterogeneous, so a first goal was the grouping of students based on reading ability within each cluster. Another aim was an interdisciplinary approach so that the teaching of reading would take place in every content area.

In response to the teacher request for assistance in "clustering," the Institute implemented a new model of inservice training. The Institute decided to hire one of the teacher-consultants who had worked with the Curley School during the previous year of planning and reorganization. The consultant, who had previously established credibility and developed a trusting relationship with many of the teachers, was usually welcomed by the teams of teachers. She met at least weekly with the cluster teams, formally during assigned planning periods and informally over coffee in the morning or at lunch. The agendas were determined by the teachers and varied widely depending on the needs, experiences, and skills of the teachers. She worked with them on problems of curricula, planning, scheduling, enforcing disciplinary rules, communicating with parents, and resolving interpersonal and team conflicts. She brought in outside human and curriculum resources whenever appropriate. This model of on-the-job inservice training was very successful, as indicated by one evaluation:

> Teachers told of assistance in "getting us together," in considering interpersonal relationships, in reinforcing decisions, and generally encouraging, helping teachers work together. Schedule changes, ideas and extra materials and resources as well as alerting other elements in the school to potential cooperative efforts, were all areas she touched upon. She had occasionally served to follow-up on ideas that others had stimulated. Her main thrust seems to have been in the struggles within teams to work together, and her acceptance in this sensitive area with a few clusters, is indicative of the school's attitude toward her.

From 1974 to the present the Curley School staff and parents have devoted their energies to assuring a peaceful implementation of desegregation and improving the quality of classroom education. Although the needs of administrators and teachers have not required constant or significant involvement of the Institute staff, Institute staff have continued to meet with administrators and teachers and respond to short-term requests for consultation or assistance.

The collaboration of the Institute and the Curley School is a happy story because all groups benefited from collaboration. The students have a "new school" with new reading programs, improved courses, and more positive relationships with teachers and with other students; the teachers have been freed to teach and are supported in their efforts to learn new teaching skills and develop new programs; the administrators learned to share the decision-making and are now free to devote more time and energy to developing positive school programs; and Institute staff have developed a new model for providing inservice training that is truly responsive to the long-term needs of a school. Many factors contributed to the success of the inservice training model described here. Among them were the following:

- The training program was change-oriented. The results of the changes—that is, a cluster-team organization, faculty involved in decision-making, etc.—provided concrete evidence that something could happen, that things could be different. This increased participants' feelings of efficacy and motivated them to further involvement and investment of time and energy.
- There was a critical mass of faculty and administrators who constituted a nucleus for change. They provided the time, energy, commitment, and values that enabled the change to begin and grow to involve others.
- The degree of tension and dissatisfaction within the school was in the optimal range for significant change. Less tension would have resulted in less perceived need to change and thus insufficient motivation for participation in the change process. More tension would have resulted in unmanageable chaos followed by a general closing of the system with eventual security measures and authoritarian rule.
- The content of the training was directly related to existing problems as perceived by the participants. For example, information on different clustering models was presented, and training was provided in leadership skills and conflict resolution during the period when the school was changing to a cluster organization.

- The process of the training involved the participants in the choice of content and instructors and heightened participant commitment.
- Instructors were selected on the basis of their competence and their compatibility with participants, not because they were members of a particular University department.
- The University consultants served as facilitators and brokers in the training process, not as experts or imposers of solutions.
- The University consultants built their credibility with participants by meeting participants' needs through delivery of specified services.
- The focus of change was at three levels: the individual—skills, attitudes, behavior; the group—leadership, division of labor, conflict resolution; and the organization—power structure, communication process, goals. This multilevel approach resulted in some changes in all parts of the social environment, which facilitated change at any one level.
- The traditional power imbalance between administrators and faculty was significantly modified as teachers increasingly assumed decision-making responsibility. This changed the most critical dimension of any organization—its power structure.
- Sufficient time was allowed for a trust relationship to be established between consultants and clients, and for participants to learn about new attitudes, new behavior, new skills, and new ways of organizing themselves. There was also sufficient time to experiment with newly devised patterns, discard the useless, and maintain the beneficial.

Appendix A

Survey of Criteria for Local Inservice Education Programs

Instructions: In Columns **A** and **B**, for each statement on the left, circle the response that best reflects your perception:

1 = Never or almost never
2 = Sometimes
3 = Frequently
4 = Always or almost always

In Column **C**, for each statement on the left, circle the response that best reflects your judgment of the appropriateness of the item as a criterion for a local inservice education program:

1 = Very inappropriate
2-9 = Gradations from very inappropriate to very appropriate
10 = Very appropriate

	A *What Is*	B *What Should Be*	C *Appropriateness of Item*
Decision-Making			
1. Decision-making processes are based on cooperation between all major interest groups, that is, school district, college/university, and teacher organization.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
2. Decisions are made by the people who are affected, and the decisions are made as close as possible to the situation where they will be operative.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

	A *What Is*	B *What Should Be*	C *Appropriateness of Item*
3. The cooperation of major interest groups is based on a concept of parity for each group.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
4. Explicit procedures exist to assure fairness in decision-making.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
5. There are policies (e.g., in a collective-bargaining agreement) relating to inservice education.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
6. Inservice education programs are institutionalized.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Relationship to the Program of the School			
7. Inservice education is directly related to curriculum development.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
8. Inservice education is directly related to instructional improvement.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
9. Inservice education is based on the needs of students.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
10. Inservice education is based on the needs of teachers.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
11. Inservice education is based on the needs of school program.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
12. Inservice education is a part of a teacher's regular teaching load.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

	A	B	C
	What Is	*What Should Be*	*Appropriateness of Item*
13. The techniques and methods used in inservice education are consistent with fundamental principles of good teaching and learning.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
14. Research/evaluation is an integral part of inservice education.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
15. All those who participate in inservice education are engaged in both learning and teaching.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Resources			
16. Time is available during regular instructional hours for inservice education.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
17. Adequate personnel are available from the school district and college/university for inservice education.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
18. Adequate materials are available.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
19. Inservice education makes use of community resources.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
20. Funds for inservice education are provided by the local school district.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
21. Inservice education is paid for by state funds provided for that purpose.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

	A *What Is*	B *What Should Be*	C *Appropriateness of Item*
Commitment to Teacher Education			
22. Professional growth is seen as a continuum from preservice preparation through career-long professional development.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
23. The inservice education program reflects the many different ways that professionals grow.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
24. The inservice education program addresses the many different roles and responsibilities that a teacher must assume.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
25. Inservice education is related to research and development.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
26. The respective strengths of the school district, the college/university, the teacher organization, and the community are used in the inservice education program.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
27. Internship and student teaching experiences are used for analysis and study in the inservice education program.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
28. Inservice education is available to all professional and nonprofessional personnel.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

	A *What Is*	B *What Should Be*	C *Appropriateness of Item*
Rewards			
29. There is a reward system for teachers, administrators, and college/university personnel and others who engage in inservice education programs.	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Appendix B

Caloosa Middle School Curriculum Council

The Curriculum Council shall consider and make recommendations to the administration and faculty in the following areas:

1. curriculum development, articulation, and evaluation as these are related to student needs and achievement;
2. instructional strategies and all areas related to these;
3. inservice needs and activities as related to staff and program development;
4. instructional supplies and equipment together with budgetary recommendations to support these needs in all departmental operations.

Membership on the Council shall include the following: assistant principal (chairperson), principal, and all department chairpersons (14).

Appendix C

School Sentiment Index Used by Caloosa Middle School

Directions: For each statement, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by marking the answer sheet:

A = Strongly agree
B = Agree
C = Disagree
D = Strongly disagree

For example: If you disagree with the statement, "My classes are too easy," you should mark **C** on the answer sheet as follows:

A	B	C	D
__	__	X	__

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer each item as honestly as you can. Do not write your name on your answer sheet.

1. I do my best in school.
2. My teachers are interested in the things I do outside of school.
3. Each day I look forward to coming to school.
4. My school has too many rules.
5. My teachers allow students some choice in what they study in class.
6. I often feel rushed and nervous at school.
7. My teachers give assignments that are too difficult.
8. Students here are friendly.
9. My teachers try to make their subjects interesting to me.
10. I hate having to do homework.
11. My teachers are interested in what I have to say.
12. When I'm at school, I'm usually unhappy.
13. This school is run like a prison.
14. Students can choose class assignments that are interesting to them.
15. If I did something wrong at school, I would get a second chance.
16. My teachers give assignments that are just busy-work.
17. I enjoy working on class projects with other students.
18. My teachers like the subjects they teach.
19. I would rather learn a new sport than play one I already know.
20. My teachers are concerned about me as a person.

21. School gets me down.
22. My teachers explain to me why I deserve the grades I get on assignments and tests.
23. Whenever I'm called to one of the offices at school, I feel upset.
24. There is too much pressure in school.
25. My teachers give me too much work.
26. School is a good place for making friends.
27. My teachers are boring.
28. I like to do a difficult assignment.
29. My teachers try to understand young people.
30. I stay home from school whenever I can.
31. My classes are too big.
32. I'm interested in what goes on at this school.
33. My teachers explain assignments clearly.
34. In school I have to memorize too many facts.
35. The main reason for going to school is to learn.
36. If I had a serious problem, I don't know one teacher in my school I could go to.
37. Students have enough voice in saying how this school is run.
38. My teachers encourage me to think for myself.
39. My teachers are fair to me.
40. I take part in many school activities.
41. My teachers give me an idea of what will be on their tests.
42. I like most of the kids at this school.
43. My teachers allow me to be myself.
44. Teachers recognize my right to a different opinion.
45. I get tired of listening to my teachers talk all the time.
46. I attend the school dances.
47. I like to talk to my teachers after class.
48. My teachers are not old-fashioned.
49. I feel I'm part of my school.
50. My teachers show that they are not prepared for class.
51. It is difficult for a new student to find friends here.
52. I get along well with my teachers.
53. My favorite classes are those in which I learn the most.
54. I would like to go to school all year long.
55. Each year I look forward to the beginning of school.
56. Our school is so large, I feel lost in the crowd.
57. I get the grade I deserve in a class.
58. My teachers are friendly toward the students.
59. I try to do good work in my class.
60. My teachers still respect me as a person even when I do poorly on my school work.

61. I like school better than my friends do.
62. There's no privacy at school.
63. My teachers let me know what is expected of me.
64. I enjoy the social life here.
65. My teachers grade me fairly.
66. There are many cliques of students here.
67. My teachers like working with young people.
68. I buy books with my own money.
69. My teachers are too concerned with discipline.
70. I liked school better when I was in elementary school than I do now.
71. At school, other people care about me.
72. I like a full school day rather than a double session.
73. My teachers will discuss grade changes with me.
74. My teachers don't care about students unless they are good students.
75. I do more school work than what is assigned.
76. Teachers at my school cannot control their classes.
77. My teachers give me individual help willingly.
78. Lunch time at school is fun.
79. My teachers are impatient.
80. If I had the choice, I wouldn't go to school at all.
81. My teachers have "pets."
82. My teachers waste too much time explaining things.
83. I follow the school rules.
84. I like going to school in the afternoon.
85. I feel tired at the end of the school day.

Appendix D

Portland Consortium Training Complex, Teacher Survey Instrument

This survey is designed to gather information for the purpose of planning the winter quarter inservice program. The results will be summarized and analyzed by your School Inservice Committee. It will recommend to the Teacher Corps staff what programs would best meet the needs of the teachers and staff in your school. To the extent possible, the winter quarter inservice program will reflect the recommendations made by the School Inservice Committee. REMEMBER, YOUR RESPONSES WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS.

Directions: Review the instrument. There are 31 statements on the instrument that are related to teacher effectiveness. Each item is accompanied by a rating scale from 0 to 10, with 0 representing "never" and 10 representing "always." Rate each item by placing a vertical mark (/) across the scale at the place you feel best represents your perception of the situation at your school. For example, if you felt that teachers seldom provided individualized instruction for students (item #18), you might place your mark as follows:

0 1 2/ 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

Remember, it is your best perception that counts.

1. Teachers and staff exhibit characteristics of self-awareness, self-acceptance, self-evaluation, and personal esteem.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

2. Teachers and staff are open to change, receptive to feedback, and willing to experiment with different behaviors and roles.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

3. Teachers and staff use effective interpersonal and group-process skills in working with others.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

4. Teachers play an active role in planning, evaluating, and making decisions regarding the school.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

5. The school environment encourages a problem-solving approach to conflicts that occur.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

6. The school environment facilitates open communication.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

7. The school environment encourages parent and community involvement.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

8. The school climate is conducive to learning.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

9. The classroom climate is conducive to learning.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

10. Each students' performance is interpreted in relation to his or her individual capability.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

11. Students help to plan and identify instructional goals for classroom activities.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

12. Students help to plan learning activities related to instructional goals.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

13. Students help to organize materials and the physical environment of the classroom to fit learning activities.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

14. The classroom is organized to respond positively to the needs of the "disruptive child."

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

15. The classroom environment encourages a problem-solving approach to conflicts that occur.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

16. The classroom environment encourages open communication.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

17. The classroom environment encourages parent and community involvement.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

18. Teachers provide individualized instruction for students.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

19. Teachers use a diagnostic-prescriptive teaching model.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

20. Teachers provide for the special needs of exceptional children.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

21. Teachers provide for the needs of students from diverse cultures.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

22. Teachers provide for matching teaching styles with student learning styles.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

23. Teachers provide alternative learning activities for different students.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

24. Teachers use methods that promote independent, responsible, and capable learners.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

25. Teachers use methods that reflect an understanding of the different curriculum areas.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

26. Teachers use parents and other community members as community resources in planning and implementing learning activities.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

27. Teachers plan learning activities that deal effectively with cultural and racial stereotypes.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

28. Teachers plan learning activities that deal effectively with the psychological and socioeconomic impact of prejudices.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

29. Teachers help students to confront and understand the feelings of students from other cultural, racial, and ethnic groups.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

30. Teachers use techniques for building and enhancing the self-concept of *all* students.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Never Seldom Sometimes Often Always

31. Identify and briefly describe the three most important concerns or needs the inservice program might legitimately address in your school. Be as specific as you can at this time.

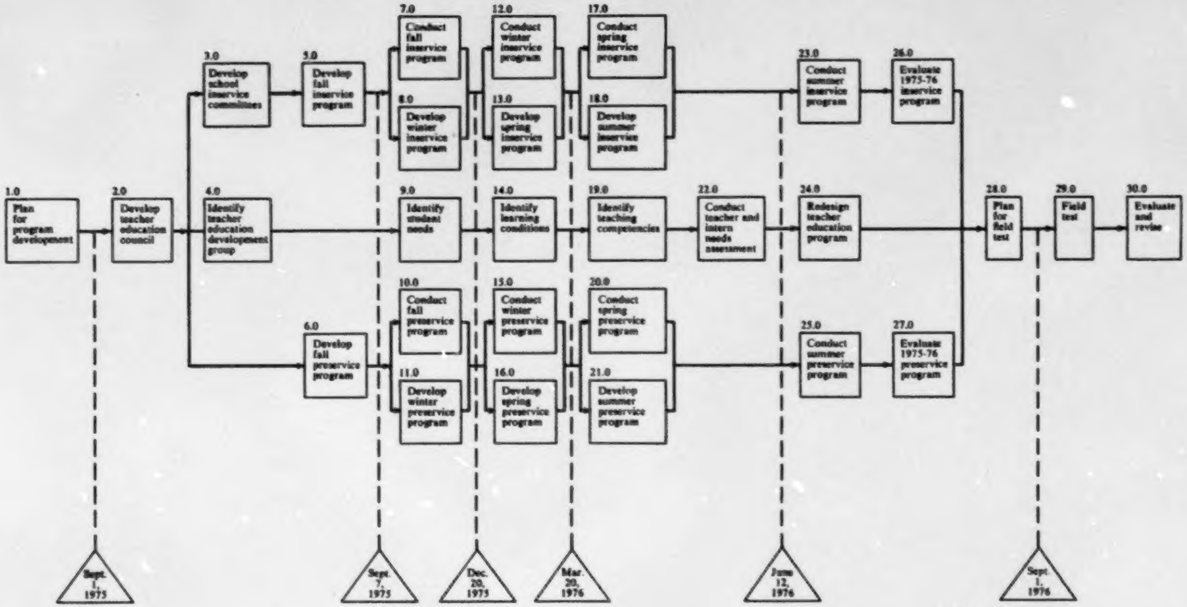
a. ______________________________
____
____

b. ______________________________
____
____

c. ______________________________
____
____

Appendix E

Work-Flow Chart for the Teacher Corps Preservice-Inservice Teacher Education Program


1.0 Plan for program development
2.0 Develop teacher education council
3.0 Develop school inservice committees
4.0 Identify teacher education development group
5.0 Develop fall inservice program
6.0 Develop fall preservice program
7.0 Conduct fall inservice program
8.0 Develop winter inservice program
9.0 Identify student needs
10.0 Conduct fall preservice program
11.0 Develop winter preservice program
12.0 Conduct winter inservice program
13.0 Develop spring inservice program
14.0 Identify learning conditions
15.0 Conduct winter preservice program
16.0 Develop spring preservice program
17.0 Conduct spring inservice program
18.0 Develop summer inservice program
19.0 Identify teaching competencies
20.0 Conduct spring preservice program
21.0 Develop summer preservice program
22.0 Conduct teacher and intern needs assessment
23.0 Conduct summer inservice program
24.0 Redesign teacher education program
25.0 Conduct summer preservice program
26.0 Evaluate 1975-76 inservice program
27.0 Evaluate 1975-76 preservice program
28.0 Plan for field test
29.0 Field test
30.0 Evaluate and revise
Sept. 1, 1975
Sept. 7, 1975
Dec. 20, 1975
Mar. 20, 1976
June 12, 1976
Sept. 1, 1976

Appendix F

Northwest Professional Development Consortium Policy Procedures and By-Laws

Article 1—Name of the Consortium

Section 1. Northwest Professional Development Consortium

Article 2—Purpose of the Consortium

Section 1. The Consortium will establish and implement programs leading to recommendation of candidates to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for (a) preparatory, (b) initial, and (c) continuing certification as specified in the *Guidelines and Standards for the Development and Approval of Programs of Preparation Leading to Certification of School Professional Personnel* (July 9, 1971).

Section 2. The Consortium will also establish and implement programs for the inservice education of educators.

Article 3—Membership

Section 1. Membership in the Consortium will consist of the Arlington School District #16, the Arlington Education Association, and Western Washington State College.

Section 2. Membership in the Consortium will be open to other interested school districts, professional associations, and universities/colleges that request admission in writing to the Consortium's Policy Board. The Policy Board will approve applications for admission.

a. Established Consortium policies and by-laws will pertain to all members admitted to the Consortium.

b. A school district and its respective professional association may seek admission to the Consortium only if both apply jointly.

c. Any member group may withdraw from the Consortium by notifying the Policy Board of that intent in writing. Such withdrawal may occur at any time unless an obligation assumed by the member has not been fulfilled. In such a case, withdrawal will follow completion of the obligation.

d. The withdrawal of a school district or its respective professional association will automatically effect the withdrawal of the other group.

Article 4—Governance and Management

Section 1. The chief administrators or their surrogates of the school districts, professional associations, and the unit for teacher education of the College or University(s) will serve on the Policy Board. Each member of the Policy Board will be responsible for appropriate consultation with officers or councils of their respective memberships on all matters requiring formal action by the Policy Board.

Section 2—Advisory Committees and Task Forces. The Policy Board will appoint advisory committees and task forces to carry out the purposes as described in Article 2.

Section 3—Policy and Program Approval. Policies and program approvals may not be formally adopted by the Policy Board at the same meeting they are initially proposed.

Section 4—Management. All management responsibilities and roles will conform to the procedures outlined under the provision for consortium management established within the 1971 *Guidelines.*

Section 5—Voting Procedures. All Policy Board decisions will require a unanimous vote by the Policy Board.

Article 5—Amendments to the Consortium Policies and By-Laws

Section 1. Amendments to and revisions of these policies and by-laws may be made by a unanimous vote of the Consortium Policy Board.

Appendix G

Western Washington State College Catalogue Description of Inservice Courses

594 h, i, j—Problem-Solving Practica in Action Research (3-15 credits). Prerequisite: Teaching experience and permission of department. Field-based studies by entire school faculties to resolve persistent and significant school problems. Course requirements include the development of an approved proposal for action research. Course must be taken in sequence. S/U grading.

594h—Practicum in Needs Assessment. Systematic analysis of pupils' achievement compared to the aspirations of pupils, community, and school faculty. Candidates will develop an approved proposal for research that is consistent with the school building's proposal.

594i—Practicum in Designing and Implementing Strategies for Change. Identification and analysis of alternatives for meeting identified problems. Selecting and implementing a proposed solution to an identified problem.

594j—Practicum in Evaluating Educational Programs. Systematic analysis of the apparent effects of program(s) designed to meet specific needs of pupils.

Appendix H

Preliminary Draft of Contract Used by Western Washington State College Teacher Corps Teacher-Designed Inservice Education Project

Title: ______________________________

Need addressed: ______________________________

____

Teacher: ______________________________

School: ______________________________

Abstract: ______________________________

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Compensation:

Course ________ Credits ________ Grade ________

Enrollment period: Fall ________ Winter ________ Spring ________

Other ______________________________

Approvals:	Proposal	Interim Report	Final Report
Team Leader ____________________	________	________	________
Clinical Professor ____________________	________	________	________
School Administrator ____________________	________	________	________

Personnel Requirements

		Proposal Preparation	*Proposal Review**	*Planning***	*Implementation***	*Evaluation***
Investigating Teacher's Time	*Planning*					
	Classroom					
	Released					
	Additional					
Other Teachers' Time	*Planning*					
	Classroom					
	Released					
	Additional					
Administrator's Time						
Clinical Professor						
Team Leader						
Graduate Intern						
Instructional Aide						
Clerical Aide						
Consultant						

*These figures will be supplied by the individuals reviewing the proposal.

**These figures should be estimated by the individual preparing the proposal and amended by the proposal review group.

Material Requirements

	Proposal Preparation	*Proposal Review**	*Planning***	*Implementation***	*Evaluation***
General Supplies					
Special Supplies					
New Materials					
Rentals					
Transportation					
Telephone					
Per Diem					
Miscellaneous					

NOTE: When the cost of an item is not known, the item should be listed on another sheet and the space in the table marked with a check (✓).

*These figures will be supplied by the individuals reviewing the proposal.

**These figures should be estimated by the individual preparing the proposal and amended by the proposal review group.

Anticipated Benefits and Liabilities

	BENEFITS	EVIDENCE	LIABILITIES
STUDENTS			
SCHOOL BUILDING			
TEACHER			
OTHERS			

Appendix I

Preliminary Field Study of the Western Washington State College Teacher Corps Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model

The initial field study of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model for short-term effects was conducted in late spring 1976. The purpose of the study was to test the feasibility of using the data sheets in the teacher contract (Appendix H) and to evaluate the computer program for data analysis.

Six representative teachers who were in the final phases of completing their individual or group contracts for the 1975-76 school year were asked to participate. The teachers completed the data sheets from the contracts under the supervision of the author of this report. The data collected were based on the teachers' recollection of the implementation of the contract. It took the teachers approximately 40 minutes to complete the data sheets. Some individual guidance was required in each case.

As a result of the preliminary data collection, some modifications have been made in the data sheets. The changes were not substantive, nor did they affect the cost analysis.

The teachers' input on the possible benefits and liabilities was marginal. The teachers had not projected specific benefits and liabilities at the time the initial contracts were negotiated, and their responses were more casual than analytical. The need for training in the development of observable objectives was indicated.

Tables 5 and 6 show the application of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model for short-term effects to an individual teacher contract. This contract was for three graduate credits, and it involved the preparation of some curriculum materials for a primary-grade classroom. The total cost associated with the contract was $724. With the exception of some travel and materials ($39) and the teacher's contributions ($293), the bulk of the cost was met by the reallocation of local funds and "in kind" contributions.

Tables 5 and 6. An Example of the Application of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model to an Individual Teacher-Designed Inservice Contract (3 Graduate Credits)

Table 5

Costs	Budget Categories								Sources of Funding				
Contract Components	*Salaries— Certificated*	*Salaries— Prof. & Tech.*	*Salaries— Secretarial et al.*	*Employee Benefits*	*Materials and Supplies*	*Books*	*Contractual Services*	*Travel and Communications*	*Institution of Higher Education*	*Local Education Agency*	*Teacher Association*	*Individual Teacher*	*Teacher Corps*
Proposal Preparation	$ 9	$ 4	$ 0	$ 1	$0	$0	$19	$ 0	$ 0	$ 29	$0	$ 0	$ 4
Proposal Review	34	14	1	6	0	0	1	0	12	40	0	0	4
Planning	71	8	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	79	0	0	8
Implementation	355	0	45	46	8	0	19	31	0	220	0	284	0
Evaluation	16	7	0	2	0	0	19	0	6	27	0	9	2

Table 6

Benefits/Liabilities	*Individual*					*Institutional*			
Recipients	*Cognitive*	*Affective*	*Psychomotor*	*Professional*	*Economic*	*Programmatic*	*Environmental*	*Economic*	*Political*
Individual Student	+								
School Building									
Local Education Agency									
Institution of Higher Education					+	–			
Teacher Association									
Individual Teacher	+	+			+				+

Tables 7 and 8. An Example of the Application of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model to an Individual Teacher-Designed Inservice Contract (18 Graduate Credits)

Table 7

Costs	*Budget Categories*								*Sources of Funding*				
Contract Components	*Salaries—Certificated*	*Salaries—Prof. & Tech.*	*Salaries—Secretarial et al.*	*Employee Benefits*	*Materials and Supplies*	*Books*	*Contractual Services*	*Travel and Communications*	*Institution of Higher Education*	*Local Education Agency*	*Teacher Association*	*Individual Teacher*	*Teacher Corps*
Proposal Preparation	$ 163	$ 67	$0	$ 24	$1	$50	$114	$ 0	$ 0	$ 251	$0	$ 95	$ 67
Proposal Review	68	38	1	11	0	0	0	0	6	77	0	0	36
Planning	1,555	447	0	153	0	0	0	30	240	1,065	0	622	258
Implementation	409	0	0	111	0	0	114	0	0	538	0	95	0
Evaluation	124	0	0	47	0	0	114	0	0	190	0	95	0

Table 8

Benefits/Liabilities	*Individual*					*Institutional*			
Recipients	***Cognitive***	***Affective***	***Psychomotor***	***Professional***	***Economic***	***Programmatic***	***Environmental***	***Economic***	***Political***
Individual Student	+			■	■	■	■	■	■
School Building	■	■	■	+		+		■	+
Local Education Agency	■	■	■	+		+		■	+
Institution of Higher Education	■	■	■	+				+	+
Teacher Association	■	■	■			■	■	■	
Individual Teacher	+			■	+	■	■	■	+

The benefits and liabilities indicated in Table 6 lack the precision of the cost data, but they are illustrative of the types of responses expected. The materials prepared by the teacher were used in the classroom for the improvement of instruction. The "+" in the student-cognitive cell indicates this benefit although at the time of the data collection it had not been demonstrated. The economic "+" for the institution of higher education is based on the number of student credit hours generated. The individual teacher received three "+'s" based on her statements concerning the value of the experience and the salary increment associated with the credits. A political "+" was assigned because participation in the inservice program was considered a contribution to the total school program. A "—" was assigned to the college in the area of program because the teacher had indicated that she did not receive as much support from the college as she had expected.

It should be noted that the assignment of benefits and liabilities is done more as an illustration than as an evaluation of the actual performance of the teacher in the completion of the contract.

A more extensive, although representative, contract for 18 credits is analyzed in Tables 7 and 8. This project involved the preparation of a management system for an elementary school mathematics program. The total cost associated with the project was $3,641. The total cost was higher than that of the earlier contract mentioned, but the actual outlay of new money was again limited almost exclusively to the cost of tuition paid by the teacher ($285), and some materials and books. The bulk of the cost was attributable to planning time and in-class experimentation with the materials developed. This cost represented reallocation of available resources.

The benefits recorded in Table 8 are again illustrative rather than actual. A full review of the project was not done for this report. It should be noted that the project has made a significant change in the mathematics program in the school. During the 1976-77 school year, the management system will be developed and computerized for use by the entire elementary school program.

The distribution of resources for each of the six contracts analyzed in the field study is presented in Table 9 according to budget categories. The major cost under the contracting procedure was shown to be salaries of certificated staff (73.6%). With the exception of contractual services —which includes tuition fees—almost no cost was assigned to materials,

Table 9. Budget Categories of Individual Contracts in the Preliminary Field Study of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model

Contract	*Budget Categories*								*Total Cost*
	Salaries—Certificated	*Salaries—Prof. & Tech.*	*Salaries—Secretarial et al.*	*Employee Benefits*	*Materials and Supplies*	*Books*	*Contractual Services*	*Travel and Communications*	
A	$ 512	$ 87	$ 1	$ 40	$37	$ 0	$ 58	$ 0	$ 735
B	238	85	35	24	40	0	58	35	515
C	2,318	553	1	346	1	50	342	30	3,641
D	485	33	46	63	8	0	58	31	724
E	3,827	108	381	294	48	200	342	0	5,200
F	3,744	23	1	415	11	35	58	15	4,302
Average Cost	**$1,854**	**$148**	**$ 78**	**$197**	**$24**	**$ 48**	**$153**	**$19**	**$2,521**
Average Percent	**73.6%**	**5.9%**	**3.1%**	**7.8%**	**1.0%**	**1.9%**	**6.1%**	**0.7%**	**100.1%***

*Over 100% because of rounding.

supplies, or nonsalary items. The tendency seems to be to use classroom time, planning time, and additional teacher time for inservice education and not to rely on other school personnel or resources.

The sources of funds for the teacher contracts are presented in Table 10. The major contributor, as may have been expected, was the local education agency, and as already stated, the bulk of this contribution was in classroom and preparation time. Somewhat unexpected was the fact that individual teachers made the second highest (24.3%) and only other substantial contribution to the inservice program. On the average, the teachers contributed more to the inservice program than the institution of higher education, teacher association, and Teacher Corps combined. Their contributions were in hours spent outside the regular school day and tuition payments.

Teacher Corps and the institution of higher education were only minor contributors to the program. The teacher association should not be faulted for the fact that it did not contribute; there was no mechanism for direct contributions of the association to the inservice program. The main role of the association was in the selection of the team leader, but the salary of the team leader was paid from Teacher Corps funds, and there-

Table 10. Sources of Funds for Individual Contracts in the Preliminary Field Study of the Costs-Benefits/Liabilities Model

Contract	*Credits*	*Funding Sources*				
		Institution of Higher Education	*Local Education Agency*	*Teacher Association*	*Individual Teacher*	*Teacher Corps*
A	3	$ 60	$ 291	$0	$ 364	$ 21
B	3	42	320	0	133	20
C	18	252	2,121	0	907	361
D	3	18	394	0	293	18
E	18	30	3,108	0	1,972	90
F	3	21	4,277	0	0	6
Average		**$ 71**	**$1,752**	**$0**	**$ 612**	**$ 86**
Percent		**2.8%**	**69.5%**	**0%**	**24.3%**	**3.4%**

fore, it did not represent a contribution of the association.

In addition to documenting the extent of individual teacher contributions to the inservice program, the field study pointed out the magnitude of the funds being used. The average cost of a teacher contract was $2,521. Although the sample used for the preliminary field study was not randomly selected, it was considered representative of the contracts negotiated during the Western Washington State College Teacher Corps Ninth-Cycle Project. Approximately 100 contracts were negotiated, making the total cost of the inservice projects in the five schools on the order of $250,000.

The bulk of this cost was hidden. None of the schools had budgeted any sums that came close to the actual expenditures. The main cost was absorbed by reallocating existing resources. The need for continued monitoring and assessment of the cost of inservice education was clearly demonstrated by the preliminary study.

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